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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

THE PROPERTY OF THE NEW-YORK LYCEUM.

JULY, 1842.

ART. I.—COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE COMMERCE OF FRANCE, GREAT BRITAIN, AND THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1827 TO 1836.*

THE destiny of those nations of the present day who have made the furthest advances in civilization is connected in the most intimate manner with their commercial prosperity. Commerce is the most fertile source of wealth, and, consequently, of power; but the great and important interests which have become the subjects of daily discussion, cannot be thoroughly and completely understood, unless the facts connected with the questions are clearly stated and exhibited under their various forms, so that all their relations may at once be perceived. The great task, that of collecting and arranging such facts, necessarily devolves upon government, by whom alone the necessary knowledge of them can be obtained. Having had occasion formerly to deplore the scantiness of such materials, and to complain of the reserve with which power dispensed the light of which it alone had possession, we have now the pleasure of lauding the facilities readily afforded in the present day in France, to any inquiries into the causes and progress of our national prosperity.

In its relations to the public, the administration of the customhouse has emancipated itself from the trammels imposed upon it under the "Empire," and which were carefully preserved by the "Restoration;" it has ceased, to the great advantage of the state, to shut up from public view the important facts which it daily collects. Superintending one of the branches of the public revenue, it has the means of verifying and comparing the acts of commerce, the movements of which are submitted to its inspection. The system of which the customhouse is the agent, does not appertain to

* For this able and interesting article, which we have translated from the French, we are indebted to the politeness of M. D. L. Rodet, its distinguished author, from whom we received a copy of it as originally published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*.

it. The system emanates from the political power; it is the expression of the economy of the state, at least so far as science has penetrated into its legislation. In this point of view, we acknowledge the administration of the customhouse entitled to additional gratitude for the extreme care which they have taken in the preparation of the documents emanating from them, which are to have such an influence in determining the modifications that our system demands. The able men who direct this administration, and superintend the preparation of the works it puts forth, do not stop short in their career of improvement; the documents that issue from their hands show themselves more and more complete, and they will become still more so in proportion as our legislators, feeling the want of additional light, are willing to meet the expense of obtaining it.

After having, since 1824, supplanted the meager statements of the former directors, by annual tables, methodically arranged, the administration has just issued a *resumé* of its works in a fine volume entitled—"*Tableau décennal du Commerce de la France avec ses Colonies, et les puissances étrangères de* 1827 *à* 1836." Importations, exportations, navigation, transit entrepôts, fisheries, drawbacks, all are collected and grouped under divers points of view, so that not a question that the book can suggest need remain unanswered for want of the means for its solution. Not that we give an entire assent to all its subdivisions and classifications, some of which are useless and some founded upon error, but our perception of these imperfections need not prevent our acknowledging the high value of the work.

During the peace that, for a quarter of a century, Europe, or rather, we should say, the world has enjoyed, the public fortunes of the nations have rapidly accumulated. Labor has produced capital, and as the terrible consummation of war has not been effected, this capital, instead of being destroyed, has increased and brought forth fruit, and has served as the basis of a commerce of exchange, the progress of which is very far from having reached its ultimate point. Political troubles, revolutions, and crises of credit occasioned by overtrading, have in some instances interrupted the movement, but as soon as these causes have ceased to act, the people hasten with renewed energy to regain the time which has been lost, and a period of redoubled activity soon compensates for the momentary interruption, and re-establishes the supremacy of the "law of progress."

Must we conclude from what we have said, that all nations called to take a part in this general commerce, preserve the relative positions from which they started? We do not think so. On the contrary, we believe that each day France cedes something of the ground which she had acquired, and which she ought to occupy. The demonstration of this unfortunate truth will no doubt be more interesting than a cold analysis of the decennial tables, in which, however, we find the elements of our conviction.

In Europe, Portugal, hardly reduced to tranquillity, dreams not of re-establishing its commerce or industry. Spain has been consuming herself in a struggle, which the spectators have suffered to be prolonged for want of power to come to an understanding as to the means by which it should be prevented. In Italy the Sardinian states, each day becoming more and more fashioned to a uniform domination, find in the activity of their ancient Ligures the elements of commercial prosperity. The other

states are following their example, while Lombardy and Venice, becoming more and more an integral part of the Austrian empire, content themselves with the wealth which a fertile soil offers as a certain reward to their labor. The Low Countries, since their separation, have struggled in emulation: Belgium for the development of her capital and the resources of her soil; Holland for the improvement of its colonies, which are rapidly increasing in importance, without exciting the notice of the world. Will not one or the other of these powers finish by ceding some port to the grand customhouse confederation of the German states? Prussia has united under its patronage twenty-five millions of Germans through the means of a uniform tariff, protective but not prohibitive, which has done more than all the diets and political confederations. This bond acquires a strength each day that will render it difficult to dissolve. Hanover, Brunswick, and the Hanse Towns, cramped in their relations to the confederated states, are evidently destined to accede to, and to complete this Germanic union. The Germans, as a commercial and producing people, will soon find themselves mixed up and confounded in one general direction. As to Austria, with her eyes turned towards the Adriatic and her Italian possessions, and pre-occupied with the navigation of the Danube, she has not much occasion to trouble herself with what passes on the Rhine or the Elbe. She renounces without difficulty any participation in a system from which it is so easy for her to live apart.

In terminating this rapid glance at the condition of those states who are nearly all of them under forms of government which do not render publicity necessary, we may remark that it is very difficult to obtain, in relation to each of them, statements sufficiently detailed, or extending over a long enough period, to enable us to make a comparison with the commerce of France. But two other grand nations, Great Britain and the United States, put forth each year the most elaborate documents, containing the details of the divers branches of their social state, and which enable us to appreciate their simultaneous progress. These three nations, in their different positions, have placed themselves in the present day, by their power, their intelligence, and their activity, at the head of the civilized world.

Our intention is not, as we have already said, to present a meager analysis of a work that is itself nothing, but a collection of interesting facts under divers heads,—but to make the best use we can of those facts, and to group them in such a way as to draw from them the conclusion that struck us as being the most remarkable. The date from which commences the decennial period adopted by the administration of the customhouse, is happily chosen, as then may be considered to have ceased the effects of the crisis in English affairs, which took place in the year 1825, and which pressed with considerable force upon part of the year 1826. In the beginning of 1827, the commercial movement commenced an ascent which each political or financial perturbation for the moment interrupts. The three nations whose commerce we are about to compare, are situated in many things very much alike, and no event can exert any disturbing influence upon the commerce of one, without its influence reacting upon the affairs of the others.

Commerce does not move in a regular and periodic manner. If some obstacle interferes with it in some of its relations, its development is so much more lively when this obstacle is removed, and a reaction imme-

diately results, tending to the restoration of affairs to a normal state. We have thought it best to divide the decennial period into successive groups of three years, leaving out of our comparison the last year, 1836, which we think ought to be taken by itself, and which will be found superior to the average, resulting from its union with 1837 and 1838, years which felt the effects of the commercial crisis in the United States. But to understand the estimates of these periods it will be necessary to give some explanations, which we will give after the following tabular summaries, of the system of official valuation followed in each country:

SUMMARY OF THE COMMERCE OF FRANCE.

Decennial Period from 1827 *to* 1836.

SHIPPING ENTERED, AND IMPORTATIONS.

	Tons.		*Francs.*
French vessels,	3,749,705	Value imported,	2,575,567,352
Foreign do.	6,445,049	do. do.	1,888,557,310
Total,	10,194,754		4,464,124,562
Importations by land,			2,209,518,852
Total value of importations,			6,673,643,414
Of which there has been consumed in the country,			4,799,507,814
Re-exported,			1,770,020,357
Leaving in store, or in the course of transit,			104,115,243

SHIPPING CLEARED, AND EXPORTATIONS.

	Tons.		*Francs.*
French vessels,	3,424,676	Value exported,	2,315,690,862
Foreign do.	4,553,279	do. do.	2,744,640,115
Total,	7,977,955		5,060,330,977
Exportations by land,			1,923,656,008
Total value of exportations,			6,983,986,985
Of this the foreign products re-exported amount to,			1,770,020,357
French products exported,			5,213,966,628

The specie and the precious metals amount—

	Francs.
Imported, to	1,646,548,718
Exported, to	699,977,520

and are not included in the preceding table.

French navigation, for the ten years, is divided as follows:—

IMPORTATION.

	Tons.		*Francs.*
The four sugar colonies,	1,025,531	Value imported,	581,619,346
Senegal,	29,834	do. do.	27,664,616
Fisheries,	534,932	do. do.	70,566,888
Commerce reserved to France,	1,590,297	do. do.	679,850,850
Foreign commerce,	2,159,408	do. do.	1,895,716,402

EXPORTATION.

	Tons.		*Francs.*
The four sugar colonies,	1,068,684	Value exported,	414,250,341
Senegal,	45,116	do. do.	42,763,470
Fisheries,	552,547	do. do.	26,435,427
Commerce reserved to France,	1,666,347	do. do.	483,449,238
Foreign commerce,	1,758,329	do. do.	1,832,241,624

STATEMENT OF EACH YEAR.

Year.	*Shipping Entered.* *Tons.*	*Shipping Entered.* *Tons.*	*Importations.* *Francs.*	*Exportations.* *Francs.*
1827	828,611	786,212	656,804,228	602,401,276
1828	874,230	787,354	607,677,321	609,922,632
1829	912,804	736,690	616,353,397	607,818,646
1830	1,009,454	629,139	638,338,433	572,664,064
1831	794,410	689,234	512,825,551	618,169,911
1832	1,114,586	808,989	652,872,341	696,282,132
1833	980,892	782,868	693,275,752	766,316,312
1834	1,131,404	888,433	720,194,336	714,705,038
1835	1,174,032	871,946	760,726,696	834,422,218
1836	1,374,321	997,090	905,575,359	961,284,756

SUMMARY OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Decennial Period from 1827 *to* 1836.

SHIPPING ENTERED, AND IMPORTATIONS.

	Tons.		*Liv. sterl.*
British vessels,	22,528,608	Official value exp'd,	471,502,281
Foreign do.	7,822,078		
			Francs.
Total,	30,350,686	or at 25 fr. 20 c.,	11,881,857,481

SHIPPING CLEARED, AND EXPORTATIONS.

	Tons.		*Liv. sterl.*
British vessels,	22,081,522	Official value imp'd,— British products,	654,382,045
Foreign do.	7,963,649	Foreign mer'dise,	107,292,061
Total,	30,045,171		761,674,106

	Francs.
Or in francs, for the British products,	16,490,427,534
" " " foreign merchandise,	2,703,759,937
Total,	19,194,187,471

	Liv. sterl.
The real or declared value of British products was, however, instead of 654,382,045 liv. sterling, only	402,583,100
And, allowing for the foreign merchandise the official value aforesaid—	107,292,061
The export trade becomes reduced to	509,875,161

	Francs.
Or in francs, for the British products, ...	10,145,094,120
" " " foreign merchandise	2,703,759,937
Total, (which is more in accordance with the importations,)	12,848,853,057

The precious metals and specie are not included in the above.

SUMMARY OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Decennial Period from 1827 *to* 1836.

SHIPPING ENTERED, AND IMPORTATIONS.

	Tons.		*Dollars.*
American vessels, . .	10,293,640 . .	Value imported,	995,244,698
Foreign do. . .	3,611,721 . .	do. do.	96,854,451
Total, . .	13,905,361 . .	. . .	1,092,099,149
		Or at 5 fr. 25 c. . . .	f.5,733,520,532

SHIPPING CLEARED, AND EXPORTATIONS.

	Tons.		*Dollars.*
American vessels, . .	10,734,094 . .	Value exported,	727,874,710
Foreign do. . .	3,588,775 . .	do. do.	186,244,531
Total, . .	14,332,599 . .	. . .	914,119,241
		Or in francs,	4,799,126,015

The exportations were—

	Dollars.	*Francs.*
American products, . . .	708,615,251 or	3,720,232,587
Foreign merchandise, . .	205,503,510 or	1,078,893,428

The American documents include bullion and specie, which amount to—

IMPORTED.

	Dollars.	*Francs.*
On American account, . .	95,596,668 or	501,882,507

EXPORTED.

	Dollars.	*Francs*
Money of the United States, .	8,598,746 or	45,143,406
Bullion and foreign coin, . .	45,024,246 or	236,377,291
Total, . .	53,622,990 or	281,520,697

AVERAGE YEAR OF THE DECENNIAL PERIOD, 1827 TO 1836.

SHIPPING ENTERED.	FRANCE. *Tons.*	GREAT BRITAIN. *Tons.*	U. STATES. *Tons.*
National vessels, ...	374,907	2,252,861	1,029,364
Foreign do.	644,505	782,208	361,172
	1.019,412	3,035,069	1,380,536
SHIPPING CLEARED.			
National vessels, ...	324,468	2,208,152	1,073,409
Foreign do.	455,328	796,365	358,878
	799,796	3,004,517	1;432,287

IMPORTATIONS.	FRANCE. *Francs.*	GREAT BRITAIN. *Francs.*	UNITED STATES. *Francs.*
By sea and by land,	667,364,341	1,188,185,748	573,352,053(1)
EXPORTATIONS.			
National products, .	521,396,663	1,014,509,412(2)	372,023,259(3)
Foreign merchandise,	177,002,036	270,375,994	107,889,343(4)
	698,398,699	1,284,885,406	479,912,602(5)

SECTION II.—STANDARD OF VALUATION.

In France the standard of official valuation, as applied by the custom-house, has been adopted after a long inquiry, and is founded upon the estimate of average prices during the time of the discussion. It was applied for the first time to commercial tables in 1825, and in comparing the results of that year with those that should have been produced by the old standards of value that had been used anterior to that time, there was found a difference of seventy-four millions of francs less in the value of importations, and sixty-four millions more in the value of exportations. One sees from this to what errors we were exposed in the pretended deductions respecting the balance of commerce, since, by the old method of estimating, there was an error in one year of one hundred and thirty-eight millions. The present official standard has since been applied to all the following years. It expresses vaguely enough some points, and unfortunately keeps no account of those changes of value which are constantly taking place.

Great Britain employs, for its official valuation, a rate that dates as far back as 1696, and which has been properly increased only upon those articles which have been produced since then. It is necessary, therefore, for a correct estimate, to institute a comparison between the declared and the real value.

Neither France or Great Britain comprise, in their commercial tables, the exportation or importation of bullion or coin.

The United States employ, for a rate of valuation, the price current of the foreign port from whence the merchandise arrives, when they have reference to importation; and the price current at the American port where the cargo is embarked, when they have reference to goods exported. The precious metals are included in the estimates of imports as well as exports; but in this last case, when speaking of American coins, they are included in the statement of native manufactured articles.

It is easy to see, from what we have said, that the amounts we are about to compare are very far from having a mathematical certainty. They only serve as an indication of the backward or forward movement of the commerce of the three powers.

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(1) Inclusive of precious metals and specie, 50,188,251 francs.

(2) Real or declared value.

(3) Comprising American money,..... 4,514,341 francs.

(4) " precious metals,..... 23,637,729 "

(5) Making a total of.....28,152,070

SECTION III.—COMMERCE OF FRANCE FOR THE DECENNIAL PERIOD.

We will now proceed to examine more in detail the proportion in which it is distributed throughout the decennial period of the commerce of which we have presented the general summary. The period from 1827 to 1836 offers peculiarities which induce us to divide it into successive groups of three years each, leaving by itself the year 1836, during which occurred an extraordinary commercial excitement which can hardly be considered a fair standard of comparison.

France has a land trade which includes not only its own proper affairs, but the business of other nations who borrow her territory as a means of transit. This last, the facilities for which has only been recently granted, is on the increase, and tends to swell the amount of trade. As to the maritime commerce, one part is made in conjunction with foreign shipping under the restriction of customhouse laws, which, except in those cases where mutual reciprocity has been guarantied, give to the French flag the preference in the importation of nearly all the articles of trade. The other part of our commerce prohibited to foreign vessels, includes the carrying trade with our colonies, our coasting trade, and fisheries.

In all our statements we shall use only round numbers, and shall express values in francs even for foreign commerce.

In the trade by land, France shows—

	IMPORTATIONS.	EXPORTATIONS.
Average year from 1827 to 1829, . .	200,000,000	163,000,000
" " 1830 to 1832, . .	183,000,000	178,000,000
" " 1833 to 1835, . .	244,000,000	218,000,000
The year 1836, ...	328,000,000	244,000,000

By sea and under the French flag—

	IMPORTATIONS.		EXPORTATIONS.	
Average year	*Tons.*	*Value.*	*Tons.*	*Value.*
from 1827 to 1829, . .	343,000	238,000,000	330,000	224,000,000
" 1830 to 1832, . .	348,000	235,000,000	311,000	208,000,000
" 1833 to 1835, . .	387,000	283,000,000	359,000	248,000,000
The year 1836, . . .	485,000	308,000,000	427,000	277,000,000
Under foreign flags—				
Average year				
from 1827 to 1829, . .	528,000	158,000,000	440,000	220,000,000
" 1830 to 1832, . .	615,000	184,000,000	398,000	243,000,000
" 1833 to 1835, . .	707,000	198,000,000	489,000	305,000,000
The year 1836, . . .	889,000	270,000,000	570,000	440,000,000

The value of goods exported is divided into—

Average year	*Foreign Goods Re-exported, or Transmitted.*	*French Products.*	*Total Exportation.*
from 1827 to 1829, .	99,000,000	508,000,000	607,000,000
" 1830 to 1832, .	157,000,000	472,000,000	629,000,000
" 1833 to 1835, .	223,000,000	549,000,000	772,000,000
The year 1836, . . .	332,000,000	629,000,000	961,000,000

The French shipping is divided as follows—

ENTERED.

Average year	*Sugar Colonies.* Tons.	*Senegal.* Tons.	*Fisheries.* Tons.	*Reserved exclusively to French Vessels.* Tons.	*Other Countries.* Tons.
from 1827 to 1829, .	104,338	3,008	51,726	159,122	184,458
" 1830 to 1832, .	103,545	2,827	46,668	153,040	204,738
" 1833 to 1835, .	99,148	2,906	58,205	160,259	226,621
The year 1836, . . .	104,289	3,609	65,135	173,033	311,953

CLEARED.

Average year					
from 1827 to 1829, .	118,355	5,060	52,442	175,857	154,032
" 1830 to 1832, .	102,527	3,646	50,049	156,222	154,497
" 1833 to 1835, .	101,315	4,558	62,039	167,912	190,820
The year 1836, . . .	102,092	5,322	58,957	166,371	260,283

The trade conducted in French vessels amounts to—

IMPORTATION.

	French Colonies and Fisheries.	*Other Countries.*
Average year from 1827 to 1829, .	68,000,000	170,000,000
" " 1830 to 1832, .	69,000,000	166,000,000
" " 1833 to 1835, .	69,000,000	214,000,000
The year 1836, ...	70,000,000	238,000,000

EXPORTATION.

Average year from 1827 to 1829, .	49,000,000	175,000,000
" " 1830 to 1832, .	44,000,000	164,000,000
" " 1833 to 1835, .	48,000,000	200,000,000
The year 1836, ...	58,000,000	219,000,000

Thus, as we have said, we do not consider the trade of the country under the same point of view that has been adopted in the classifications of the customhouse. We do not think that the official classifications are always calculated to fulfil the purpose intended, and we find it difficult to understand how a list of materials of the first necessity to industry can include race-horses and hunting-dogs, and not sheep; drugs and wool used without preparation in beds, and not raw sugar which is used in so many ways, and the products of which exported are classified as manufactures; and we cannot regard brandy, or tanned and dressed skins as natural products. The misfortune of such classifications is, that they serve as the ground for false reasonings in relation to the relative importance of some branches of our foreign commerce. In the present case we shall confine ourselves to an enumeration of some of the principal articles, and their official value.

	Importation.	*Stored and Delivered for Consumption.*
Silk, ...	734,000,000	400,000,000
Cotton, ...	711,000,000	589,000,000
Wool and Hair, ...	288,000,000	225,000,000
Skins of Animals, . . .	162,000,000	140,000,000
Colonial Sugar, ...	490,000,000	446,000,000
Olive Oil, ...	320,000,000	296,000,000
Indigo, ...	249,000,000	180,000,000
Fabrics of Silk, ...	231,000,000	28,000,000

Articles.—Continued.	*Importation.*	*Stored and Delivered for Consumption.*
Fabrics of Flax and Hemp, . .	225,000,000	161,000,000
" Wool, . . .	74,000,000	
" Cotton, . . .	163,000,000	
Ores and Coal, ...	405,000,000	388,000,000

The principal articles exported during the same period are as follows :—

	Exportations.	*Produce of the Soil, or of French Industry, Exported.*
Wines, ...	473,000,000	467,000,000
Brandy, ...	199,000,000	193,000,000
Fabrics of Silk, ...	1,434,000,000	1,215,000,000
" Cotton, . . .	664,000,000	543,000,000
" Wool, . . .	408,000,000	339,000,000
" Flax and Hemp, .	428,000,000	326,000,000
Embroidery and other products of Parisian industry, ...	206,000,000	197,000,000
Refined Sugar, ...	102,000,000	81,000,000
Silk, ...	380,000,000	
Cotton, ...	102,000,000	

The nations with whom the commercial relations of France are the most important, are the United States, The Low Countries, Sardinia, England, Austria, The German States, Switzerland, Spain, Russia, and our own colonies.

SECTION IV.—COMMERCE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

We have mentioned the origin of the standard applied to the valuation of the commerce of Great Britain. When first used it accorded nearly with the truth, but time has effected a great difference, and in 1798 Parliament required that the actual and real value should be noted in relation to products of the soil or of British industry.

The shipping of the United Kingdom is found thus—

	British Flag.	*Foreign Flags.*	*Total.*
ENTERED.			
Av. year from 1827 to 1829,	2,122,000	699,000	2,821,000
" " 1830 to 1832,	2,244,000	758,000	3,002,000
" " 1833 to 1835,	2,308,000	820,000	3,128,000
The year 1836, ...	2,505,000	989,000	3,494,000
CLEARED.			
Av. year from 1827 to 1829,	1,986,000	702,000	2,688,000
" " 1830 to 1832,	2,211,000	768,000	2,979,000
" " 1833 to 1835,	2,320,000	839,000	3,159,000
The year 1836, ...	2,532,000	1,035,000	3,567,000

IMPORTS.	*Official Value.—Francs.*
Average year from 1827 to 1829, . .	1,125,000,000
" " 1830 to 1832, . .	1,181,000,000
" " 1833 to 1835, . .	1,187,000,000
The year 1826, ...	1,404,000,000

EXPORTS.

	Foreign Products, Re-exported. Official Value.—Francs.	*British Products. Francs.*	*Total. Francs.*
Average year from 1827 to 1829,	255,000,000	1,354,000,000	1,609,000,000
" 1830 to 1832,	255,000,000	1,570,000,000	1,825,000,000
" 1833 to 1835,	287,000,000	1,860,000,000	2,147,000,000
The year 1836, .	312,000,000	2,139,000,000	2,451,000,000

But if, retaining the official estimate for foreign products exported, we consider the real and declared value of British products, we shall find the exports to be as follows:—

	Foreign Products. Official Value. Francs.	*British Products. Declared Value. Francs.*	*Total. Francs.*
Average year from 1827 to 1829,	255,000,000	923,000,000	1,178,000,000
" 1830 to 1832,	255,000,000	940,000,000	1,195,000,000
" 1833 to 1835,	287,000,000	1,074,000,000	1,361,000,000
The year 1836, .	312,000,000	1,336,000,000	1,648,000,000

The commerce of England extends to every country in the world. Her colonies in North America and the East Indies, South America, the Mediterranean, and the nations of Europe, offer vast markets for her products, but none of equal importance to that which she finds in the United States. Of forty-seven millions sterling, the declared value of British exports in 1835, the United States alone took ten millions and a half, and of fifty-three millions in 1836, they took twelve millions and a half.

SECTION V.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

We have stated upon what principles are based the commercial estimates presented to Congress. With them the financial year commences the first of October, and finishes the last of September of the following year. We have, in consequence, commenced our comparative periods with October, 1826, and will end with September, 1836. We have already given a general table of facts for the whole period, and we will now add the more important details and divisions.

The United States shipping has thus been classed and reported—

ENTERED.

	American Vess. Tons.	*For. Vess. Tons.*	*Total. Tons.*
Av. year from 1826-27 to 1828-29,	887,000	139,000	1,026,000
" " 1829-30 to 1831-32,	946,000	269,000	1,215,000
" " 1832-33 to 1834-35,	1,179,000	569,000	1,748,000
The year 1835-36, ...	1,255,000	680,000	1,935,000

CLEARED.

Av. year from 1826-27 to 1828-29,	941,000	138,000	1,079,000
" " 1829-30 to 1831-32,	973,000	264,000	1,237,000
" " 1832-33 to 1834-35,	1,225,000	568,000	1,794,000
The year 1835-36, ...	1,315,000	675,000	1,990,000

IMPORTATIONS.

Average year	*American Flag.* *Francs.*	*Foreign Flags.* *Francs.*	*Total.* *Francs.*
from 1826-27 to 1828-29,	396,000,000	28,000,000	424,000,000
" 1829-30 to 1831-32,	438,000,000	43,000,000	481,000,000
" 1832-33 to 1834-35,	607,000,000	66,000,000	673,000,000
The year 1836, . . .	901,000,000	96,000,000	997,000,000

EXPORTATIONS.

Average year	*American Products.* *Francs.*	*Foreign Products, Re-exported.* *Francs.*	*Total.* *Francs.*
from 1826-27 to 1828-29,	289,000,000	108,000,000	397,000,000
" 1829-30 to 1831-32,	322,000,000	102,000,000	424,000,000
" 1832-33 to 1834-35,	442,000,000	111,000,000	553,000,000
The year 1835-36, . .	561,000,000	114,000,000	675,000,000

The export trade is shared as follows:—

Average year	*American Flag.* *Francs.*	*Foreign Flags.* *Francs.*	*Total.* *Francs.*
from 1826-27 to 1828-29,	342,000,000	55,000,000	397,000,000
" 1829-30 to 1832-33,	342,000,000	82,000,000	424,000,000
" 1833-34 to 1834-35,	420,000,000	133,000,000	553,000,000
The year 1836, . . .	510,000,000	165,000,000	675,000,0

As we have said, the United States documents comprise in their tables the precious metals and coins; and we find that for the decennial period there was—

	Francs.		*Francs.*
Imported, ...	501,882,000	Average year, . . .	50,188,000
Exported, ...	281,520,000	" " . . .	28,152,000
Leaving an excess of	220,362,000	" " . . .	22,036,000
To which must be added the produce of native mines, nearly	26,250,000	" " . . .	2,625,000
Increase of circulation in ten years, ...	246,612,000	" " . . .	24,661,000

A certain portion of American commerce does not make in the official estimates the appearance that it really deserves. In every sea this kind of commerce is carried on by American vessels directly from the place of production to the place of consumption, without touching at any American port, and in consequence it is not included in the estimates submitted to Congress. This important part of American trade cannot be ascertained, and then very imperfectly, but by a long and laborious investigation, for which purpose it would be necessary to examine the estimates of imports and exports from India, China, Brazil, Cuba, the ports of the Mediterranean, the Hanse Towns, and the north seas of Europe, between which the communications are frequently effected by American vessels. It must be understood that the tables furnished by the government of the Union express but a part of the elements of the prosperity of this new country. The United States have found in their fertile soil, their vigilant industry,

and in the happy effects of their constitution, the means of furnishing, for foreign consumption, an enormous mass of natural products. During the decennial period materials were produced to the amount of

3,200,000,000 lbs. of	cotton . . .	2,032,000,000
91,000,000 "	tobacco . . .	335,000,000
Corn, rice, flour, wheat, biscuit, etc.	. .	626,000,000

making a total of nearly 3,000,000,000 of francs, gathered directly from the soil.

The importance of these products, the fisheries, timber, &c., render less notable the tardiness in the development of manufactures. The employment, however, of machinery, and the advantage of having the materials directly at hand, have already increased the exportation of cotton goods to an amount, during the decennial period, exceeding 88,000,000 of francs, of which near twelve millons were for the year 1835–36.

SECTION VI.—GENERAL VIEW OF THE COMMERCIAL PROSPECTS OF FRANCE.

Statistics are not a dead-letter from which no instruction is to be drawn. We must, however, guard against too absolute conclusions in view of the difficulty we have in comparing and authenticating our facts. It is also necessary to take the precaution of examining the circumstances accompanying or following the periods we have under consideration. Thus, the movement of commercial affairs in 1836 has given rise to the greatest errors. It has been taken as an exemplification of the principle of permanent increase, whereas it ought to be looked upon as a year of extraordinary excitement and immoderate overtrading throughout the globe. General commerce ought to augment with the civilized populations, and the increase of their means and appliances of industry, but it would be very erroneous to estimate any such progress by a comparison of 1826 and 1836. We have seen how much the affairs of this year have been modified by a combination in the years 1837 and '38. Not that we attach any such great importance to the grouping of years in periods which we have adopted, we simply follow this method because we think it serves very well to express the influence of historical events upon the progress of commerce, and to reduce, by an average of several years, the liability to mistakes if we examine the facts of only one.

The backward movement that took place during the years 1837 and '38 has already ceased, and will probably be followed by a new era of progression. Is France ready to join in and to profit by this change? To resolve this question it is necessary to return to a consideration of some of the details of the statistics we have already presented. The laudations that a nation may bestow upon itself frequently have but a slight foundation, and are useful only to cover and conceal the complaints of that portion of society who have a just perception of the evils that exist, and that ought to be remedied. Let us then, without any self-glorifying assertions, examine into the true indications of the progess of our commerce and our prospects of future prosperity. Let us see what we have to expect; and in doing so, let it be borne in mind that the comparisons we have to institute are between France, with a population of thirty-three millions, and Great Britain with twenty-four millions, and the United States with thirteen millions.

Imports, despite the false theories of political economy, are the sign of

the wealth and industry of a country. In France they may be embraced in three divisions,—first, those employed in satisfying the wants of consumers; second, those that are reshipped for foreign countries; and third, the balance, when there is any, that goes to form a reserve in *entrepôt*, or in transit.

1. Foreign products consumed—

From 1827 to 1829, . . .	1,351	millions of francs.
From 1830 to 1832, . . .	1,368	" "
From 1833 to 1835, . . .	1,515	" "

2. Exported to foreign ports—

From 1827 to 1829, . . .	298	millions of francs.
From 1830 to 1832, . . .	471	" "
From 1833 to 1835, . . .	669	" "

and it has therefore more than doubled.

3. The reserve in *entrepôt* has augmented—

From 1827 to 1829, . . .	141	millions of francs.

and it has decreased—

From 1830 to 1832, . . .	36	millions of francs.
From 1833 to 1835, . . .	10	" "

Such is the division of French imports, which together amounted—

From 1827 to 1829, . . to .	1,790	millions of francs.
From 1830 to 1832, . . to .	1,804	" "
From 1833 to 1835, . . to .	2,174	" "

We see from this that the increase of French importations is almost wholly owing to the increase of that part which is resold to foreign countries:—

The importations into England have been—

	Official Value. Francs.	*Resold to Foreign Nations.*	*Consumed in England.*
From 1827 to 1829, . .	3,374 millions.	766 millions.	2,608 millions.
From 1830 to 1832, . .	3,542 "	765 "	2,776 "
From 1833 to 1835, . .	3,561 "	861 "	2,700 "

The imports into the United States were—

	Official Value. Francs.	*Resold to Foreign Nations.*	*Consumed in the United States.*
From 1827 to 1829, . .	1,273 millions.	324 millions.	949 millions.
From 1830 to 1832, . .	1,444 "	304 "	1,138 "
From 1833 to 1835, . .	2,019 "	334 "	1,685 "

The exportations of products of the soil and of native industry were—

	France. Official Value.—Francs.	*Great Britain. Declared Value.*	*United States. Real Value.*
From 1827 to 1829, .	1,522 millions.	4,063 millions.	868 millions.
From 1830 to 1832, .	1,416 "	4,708 "	965 "
From 1833 to 1835, .	1,647 "	5,580 "	1,326 "

We must not forget to remark that the precious metals are not included in the documents of France or Great Britain, and that the official valuation surpasses by a considerable proportion the real value.

In the exportations, the foreign merchandise reshipped is also included. But can this commerce, which has increased so rapidly, be said to belong to France? 'Tis true it takes place on our territory, and helps to swell our estimate, but if we look to the bottom of the subject we will find that we have very little interest in it; that it goes on under our eyes, but without any of us taking any part in it. Other nations have found our geographical position commodious, and have made our territory a rendezvous where they traffic among themselves; and our laws in relation to the transit of goods have given rise to a kind of commerce, of which the variations are owing to causes entirely foreign to our country.

The United States, England, Switzerland, Germany, Prussia, and the East Indies, have sent to us articles not entering into our consumption, amounting, in the period from 1827 to 1829, to 146 millions of francs, and from 1833 to 1835, 334 millions. On the other hand, our exportation of articles of foreign growth amounted, for the United States, Switzerland, Germany, and the Sardinian States alone, to ninety-five millions, from 1827 to 1829, and 297 millions from 1833 to 1835. This increase of the commerce of exchanges through our territory is a remarkable fact, but what renders it particularly worthy of observation is the certainty that all this great trade is carried on without the concurrence of our citizens, that they participate in it neither with their capital or with their ships. Switzerland demands from the United States and England, cotton, indigo, and other commodities. The United States, on their side, resort to the labor of the Swiss and Germans for silks, ribbons, linens, and cloths, which form the lading of their packets at Havre. All this kind of trade unregistered in our official statements and documents, gives a false appearance of life to our commercial relations, and augments their importance by hundreds of millions. The exportation of the products of our own soil in the mean time has increased so little, that if we make allowance for the difference between the official valuation and the real value, we shall find perhaps that we have rested stationary for the nine years.

It remains to examine an important branch, that of shipping, and to consider the comparative progress of navigation foreign to the country, in France, England, and the United States.

ENTERED.

	France.		*Great Britain.*		*United States.*	
	National.	*Foreign.*	*National.*	*Foreign.*	*National.*	*For'gn.*
	Thousands of Tons.		*Thousands of Tons.*		*Thous'nds of Tons.*	
From 1827 to 1829, .	1,030	1,585	6,365	2,097	2,660	419
From 1830 to 1832, .	1,073	1,845	6,783	2,273	2,840	807
From 1833 to 1835, .	1,160	2,125	6,925	2,462	3,539	1,706
CLEARED.						
From 1827 to 1829, .	990	1,320	5,957	2,106	2,822	415
From 1830 to 1832, .	932	1,195	6,632	2,306	2,919	793
From 1832 to 1835, .	1,076	1,467	6,960	2,516	3,676	1,705

The figures speak for themselves, and demonstrate that we are resting stationary, while our rivals are advancing. But there are some other points which, if examined, will leave no doubt upon the mind of any one. French shipping is either reserved and exclusive, as that to our colonies or the fisheries, or it is shared in common with foreign commerce, with only the protection of the differential duties of the customhouse. As to

this last, in which is to be found the proof of our commercial force and spirit, we shall be pardoned if we recur once more to the figures which express its condition.

SHIPPING ENTERED.

	French Flag.	*Foreign Flag.*
From 1827 to 1829	553,375 . .	1,584,703
1830 " 1832	614,216 . .	1,845,115
1833 " 1835	679,864 . .	2,125,686

SHIPPING CLEARED.

From 1827 to 1829	472,215 . .	1,320,589
1830 " 1832	470,785 . .	1,195,203
1833 " 1835	581,576 . .	1,467,051

That is to say, that in the relations of France with other countries, our vessels are employed only to a little more than one quarter of the whole.

After a quarter of a century of peace, can any thing be imagined more deplorable than such a result? Still more, if we analyze the causes which have enabled us to preserve even this fourth part of the shipping which enters and clears from our ports, we shall find that we have been compelled to have recourse, as far as England is concerned, to a "reciprocity of commercial repulsion," to protect our shipping in the India trade, by duties equivalent to several times the amount of the freights, and to encourage voyages to the eastern islands, by the most exorbitant immunities; which, on the other hand, have destroyed our commerce with Hayti, and perhaps deprived the inhabitants of that island of the means of discharging their obligations to us.

The prosperity of the merchant marine depends upon the commercial progress of a nation, for in the present day every nation employs as much as possible its own vessels in its own trade. Without a merchant marine there can be no military marine; and this last, as we have seen at Navarino, Algiers, in the Tagus, and lately in South America, is one of the most sure bases of political preponderance and power. Well may we be astonished at the neglect that has been manifested, particularly since the revolution of 1830, in the councils of the nation, for our true commercial interests. Such, however, are the fruits of the perseverance with which the system adopted under the empire, and carefully preserved by succeeding governments, has been followed. The supporters of it pretend that the internal prosperity of the country is ensured by the prohibition of the products of foreign labor. They do not seek to encourage exportation, but imagine they have gained every thing, when they have annihilated some branch of importation. They please themselves with exaggerated praises bestowed upon the industry of the country, and disguise the fact that we are being driven from the markets of the world. That while ignorant of the progress of our rivals, we are neglecting the new duties our country is called upon to fulfil. It is evidently a decline not to march at an equal pace with other nations, and such undoubtedly is our position in respect to that portion of commerce of which we speak.

We have had occasion, in an article in a former number of this review, to dilate upon the ideas which were excited by the grand ceremonies of the exhibition of the products of French industry—the fair of 1834. Since then, Charles Dupin, speaking in the name of the committee to whom was intrusted the decision upon the respective merits of the articles exhibited,

has, in a report which combines the highest scientific information with profound technical knowledge, set forth in the most forcible manner the importance of the manufacturing interests. Doing full justice to a work of so much interest, and fully appreciating the impartiality of the committee, we cannot but regret that they did not interrogate the manufacturers as to the place that their products occupy in the consumption of foreigners and their influence in swelling our exportations. That would furnish the true touchstone of our progress and the measure of our success.

After the exhibition followed an examination. There the same manufacturers who had demanded a recompense for their progress, came confessing their inability to compete with foreigners, and that for this unfortunate state of things there can only be found a remedy in the continuation of protection amounting nearly to prohibition. The government could not struggle against the general wish shared by men of every variety of political opinion, and our manufacturers have quietly gone to sleep, satisfied with the consumption secured to them of thirty-four millions of inhabitants. Our industry has not felt the slightest anxiety at seeing pass through our territory in 1836, 332 millions of francs in foreign products. Of this, some 180 millions were in manufactured articles. What are the causes that prevent us from furnishing this amount? Why is the preference given to Switzerland, Prussia, &c.? What puts these countries in a state to excel us? Nobody knows. And yet we have no want of men who laud us instead of warning us. We rest in the rear of the march pursued by other nations; and if we perceive that, after having bought the flax, they come to us to sell the linen also, we can find the only remedy in a prohibition of such product, instead of seeking some method of making it at a lower price. The production of the beet-root is regarded as a conquest, protected as it has to be by duties amounting to one hundred per cent upon the prices that we pay our colonies for the sugar we buy of them. We abandon the cultivation of many rich products for that which will properly develop itself only in a hot-house, and which, sooner or later, will exhibit itself a miserable deception to those who have delivered themselves up to it. This epoch will arrive when the government shall have discovered that there are other interests besides those of the landholders, for the mere cultivators are disinterested in the affair. It will arrive when the commerce with foreign countries, the marine, and the power of France, shall have attracted the regard of the Chambers and the Ministry, when they will be willing to abandon the absurd system of encouraging on the one hand by bounties what they destroy on the other by prohibitive duties.

Not that the government is without an idea of the importance of preserving a naval force. It is with the view of creating a supply of sailors that bounties are allowed upon the whale and cod fisheries. But they ought to count more upon the trade of our ports with the colonies we possess, and exercise a due influence in preserving them in a state of prosperity. They ought to think, in relation to them, of what they have done for the coasting trade, that important nursery of seamen, which has been greatly benefited by a recent ordinance removing the tonnage duties of coasting vessels, and extending their licenses to a year. This measure is one that we cannot too much praise, but it cannot exert any influence upon our grand commerce.

The four sugar colonies gave employment to nearly one hundred thousand tons of shipping, and from five to six thousand sailors. Their trade,

reserved exclusively to our own country, has amounted to an average value of from fifty to sixty millions of francs, and it has been decreasing for several years. We have ceased in France to comprehend the value of these establishments, and we look with contempt upon the fine roadsteads of Fort Royal, where France, at it were at home, could collect and shelter the fleets capable of making her name respected upon distant shores. Without colonies, the whale and cod fisheries will become nearly useless. We will just glance at the facts having relation to this branch of navigation, which has been for a long time so highly protected.

The whale-fishery employed on an average from 1827 to 1829, 200 seamen yearly, and produced 13,000 quintals of oil. From 1833 to 1835 the numbers of the crews were raised to 600 men, and the produce amounted to 30,000 annually.

The cod-fishery employed 9,000 men on an average from 1827 to 1829, and 10,000 in 1833–35. The produce amounted to an average of 55,000 quintals, of which 20,000 went to Spain, and ports in the Mediterranean, and the balance was taken to our sugar colonies. These colonies, besides the 35,000 quintals we send them, receive the cargoes which our fishermen take directly from Newfoundland, and in return for which they freight with colonial commodities for the northern country. Their total consumption of the products of the fisheries amounts to 80,000 quintals per annum.

The state allows, under various conditions, to those who undertake fishing voyages, a bounty equivalent to between three and four hundred francs a year for each man. In other words, the state pays the wages of the men and leaves to the owners the profits of the voyage. In some voyages of long duration, as in the whale-fishery, the bounties amounted to from 1,400 to 1,500 francs for each seaman. Such great sacrifices have an object, and this object has been once obtained, for without the resources which were found in the sailors engaged in the fisheries, the expedition to Algiers could not have taken place.

If the fisheries, and particularly the cod-fishery, has need of the aid of government to subsist, it has equally a need of a market for its products. Now foreign countries take scarcely a fifth, and it is only by submitting to exorbitant duties, which at any moment may be changed into prohibition, that we retain the precarious and trifling market in Spain. The British Parliament have been recently occupied with the remonstrances of the people interested against the proposed increase of duty by the Spanish authorities, but it does not seem that all the skill of Mr. Villiers has been able to obtain any melioration; and if Spain quiets her internal dissensions, her first care will be to strengthen her system of commercial repulsion, of which we have given her the example. We can place dependence only upon our colonies for the consumption of the products of our fisheries, the existence of which depends upon them. United, these two inseparable branches make two fifths of our whole navigation, and under this point of view we are already so poor that we ought to dread the approach of the time when an additional reduction will be effected. But with the ideas that at present predominate, we have no confidence that our feeble efforts can avail to avert a loss so disastrous. It is necessary, if truth is to triumph, that voices more powerful should be raised in her behalf.

We are far from having exhausted this subject. We have pointed out the evil. Colonies are essential to a commercial people. As for the United States, divided into two grand regions, one of these regions is the

colony of the other: one, at the south, produces; the other traffics, exchanges, and exports. Great Britain is assured of renewed resources in the east, but she has also made sacrifices enough in favor of the West Indies to enable us to judge of the value she attaches to the future prosperity of those fine islands. A people—less powerful, but of great perseverance never wrongly directed—the Dutch, haved turned their whole attention towards Java, nearly the only important possession they have preserved. In 1826 the commerce of that island, entered and cleared, amounted to fifteen millions of florins, or nearly thirty-two millions of francs. In 1836 it had increased to forty-one millions of florins, or eighty-seven millions of francs. In the same space of time our commerce with our colonies, including the fisheries, remained absolutely stationary, and limited to sixty-eight millions of francs, the official value of the entries, and about fifty millions value of the clearances.

It is impossible to have power without a military marine, a military marine without commerce and merchant shipping, merchant shipping without colonies and the fisheries, and lastly, colonies without doing something for their interests and their existence. Some will say we can do without all that, but for ourselves we have not the courage to make such a declaration.

Art. II.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES IN FIFTY YEARS,

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION—THE CENSUS OF 1790.

As soon as the framers of the Federal Constitution had decided on giving to each state a representation in Congress in proportion to its numbers, and that direct taxes, whenever resorted to, should be in the same proportion, it became necessary to take an exact enumeration of the people. Such an enumeration was accordingly directed by the Constitution; and, as it was known that the progress of population greatly varied, and would continue to vary in the several states, it was further provided that similar enumerations should be taken "within every subsequent term of ten years."*

This census of the people at stated periods, which was thus subordinate to a particular purpose, was soon found to have substantial merits of its own. It has furnished an authentic document which is invaluable to the

* The provision of the Constitution referred to is in the second section of the first article, and is in these words: "Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and, excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons, [meaning slaves.] The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct."

philosopher and political economist, as well as to the statesman and legislator. By the evidence it affords they are enabled to deduce truths of sufficient importance to justify the trouble and expense it involves, though it were not necessary to the just distribution of political power, and to equality of taxation; and its benefits became so obvious, that the most enlightened nations of Europe have followed the example, and now take periodical censuses of their inhabitants solely for the valuable knowledge they convey. As the numbers of a people are at once the source and the index of its wealth, these enumerations enable its statesmen to see whether national prosperity is advancing, stationary, or retrograde. They can compare one period with another, as well as different parts of the country with each other, and having this satisfactory evidence of the facts, they can more successfully investigate the causes, and apply the appropriate remedies, where remedy is practicable.

They also furnish occasions for obtaining other statistical information on subjects that materially concern civilization and national prosperity. The same means taken to ascertain the numbers of the people may be used to distribute them into classes, according to sex, ages, and occupations, and different races, where such diversity exists. Accordingly, the United States, and all the European nations who have profited by our example, have thus improved their respective enumerations of their people. Six censuses have now been taken in this country, and in each successive one, some new list has added to our knowledge of the progess of social improvement. By their aid, speculations in political philosophy of great moment and interest may be made to rest on the unerring logic of numbers.

This knowledge, so indispensable to every government which would found its legislation on authentic facts, instead of conjecture, is peculiarly important to us. Our changes are both greater and more rapid than those of any other country. A region covered with its primeval forests is, in the course of one generation, covered with productive farms and comfortable dwellings, and in the same brief space villages are seen to shoot up into wealthy and populous cities. The elements of our population are, moreover, composed of different races and conditions of civil freedom, whose relative increase is watched with interest by every reflecting mind, however he may view that diversity of condition, or whatever he may think of the comparative merit of the two races.

It is the purpose of the following pages to profit by the information which the several censuses have furnished, so as not only to make us better acquainted with the progress of our Federal Republic during the half century it has existed, but also to give us a glimpse of the yet more important future which awaits us.

Before we consider the inferences to be deduced from all the censuses together, let us take a brief notice of each of them in succession.

The first census was taken in 1790, and its enumeration referred to the 1st of August of that year. It distributed the population under the following heads, viz:

1st. Free white males, sixteen years of age and upwards.
2d. The same under sixteen.
3d. Free white females of all ages.
4th. Slaves.
5th. All other persons; by which was meant free persons of color.

The result is exhibited in the following

TABLE OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1ST OF AUGUST 1790.

States.	*White Males of 16 and upwards*	*White Males under 16.*	*White Females.*	*All other persons.*	*Slaves.*	*Total.*
*Maine,	24,384	24,748	46,870	538	.....	96,540
New Hampshire,	36,089	34,851	70,171	630	158	141,899
Massachusetts,	95,383	87,289	190,582	5,463	.....	378,717
Rhode Island,	16,033	15,811	32,845	3,469	952	69,110
Connecticut,	60,527	54,492	117,562	2,801	2,759	238,141
Vermont,	22,419	22,327	40,398	255	17	85,416
New York,	83,700	78,122	152,320	4,654	21,324	340,120
New Jersey,	45,251	41,416	83,287	2,762	11,423	184,139
Pennsylvania,	110,788	106,948	206,363	6,537	3,737	434,373
Delaware,	11,783	12,143	22,384	3,899	8,887	59,096
Maryland,	55,915	51,339	101,395	8,043	103,036	319,728
Virginia,	110,934	116,135	215,046	12,766	293,427	748,308
North Carolina,	69,998	77,506	140,710	4,975	100,572	393,751
South Carolina,	35,576	37,722	66,888	1,801	107,094	249,073
Georgia,	13,103	14,044	25,739	398	29,264	82,548
Kentucky,	15,154	17,057	28,922	114	11,830	73,077
Tennessee,	6,271	10,377	15,365	361	3,417	35,791
	813,298	802,327	1,556,839	59,466	697,897	3,929,827

* Maine was then a part of Massachusetts, and so continued until 1820, but as its census was taken separately, it has always properly held a separate place in statistical tables.

By this census the population of the United States was first ascertained by actual enumeration, together with its several parts, white and colored, free and servile, and the comparative numbers of the different states. As the result somewhat disappointed expectation, the census was supposed by many to be inaccurate, and the assumed error was imputed, I know not on what evidence, to the popular notion that the people were thus counted for the purpose of being taxed, and that not a few had, on this account, understated to the deputy marshals the number of persons in their families.* But the general conformity of this census with those subsequently taken, in all points where the discrepancy cannot be satisfactorily explained, shows that the errors could not have been considerable.

The census showed that the population of this country had been overrated at the revolution, for supposing the rate of increase to have been the same before the census as after it, the people of the thirteen colonies, at the time of the stamp act, fell considerably short of two millions, and at the declaration of independence, they did not reach to two and a half millions.

The items of the first census were unfortunately too few to furnish much materials for comparison. The most important facts it discloses, are the following:

* It is certain that this supposed source of error was credited by General Washington, usually so cautious, and almost unerring in his judgments, and that on the faith of it, he expected that the second census would show a much larger amount of population than proved to be the fact.

Of the whole population, the whites were	3,172,464	=	80.73 per cent.
The free colored,	59,466	=	1.51 " "
The slaves,	697,897	=	17.76 " "
	3,929,827		100.

Consequently, the whole free population, white and colored, were . . . . . 82.24 " "
And the whole slave population, ... 17.76 " "

The number of white males to that of the females was as 103.8 to 100; or for every 10,000 males there were 9,636 females.

It deserves to be remarked that the age of sixteen, which was adopted by Congress to divide the male population into two parts, with a view probably to ascertain the number of men capable of bearing arms, made an almost equal division between them. Thus, of the whole male white population, the part over sixteen is 50.3 per cent, and the part under sixteen 49.7. The age of twenty was thus found to divide the male population of England into two equal parts, by the census taken in that country in 1821.

It will be perceived that, at this period, every state in the Union, except Massachusetts, contained slaves. But, as in several the number was few, and slavery was there subsequently abolished, in tracing the progress of the slave population, it has been thought best to confine our views to those in which slavery still exists, and where it constitutes a larger part of the population.

The proportion of the white, the free colored, and the slave population may be seen in the following table :—

States.	*Whole Pop'lation.*	*Whites.*	*Free Col'd.*	*Slaves.*	PER CENTAGE OF		
					Whit's	*F. Col.*	*Slaves.*
Delaware	59,096	46,034	4,177	8,887	77.9	7.1	15.
Maryland	319,728	208,649	8,043	103,036	65.3	2.5	32.2
Virginia	748,308	442,115	12,766	293,427	59.1	1.7	39.2
North Carolina	393,751	288,204	4,975	100,572	73.2	1.3	25.5
South Carolina	249,073	140,178	1,801	107,094	56.3	.7	43.
Georgia	82,848	52,886	398	29,264	64.1	.5	35.4
Kentucky	73,077	61,613	114	11,350	84.3	.2	15.5
Tennessee	35,791	32,013	361	3,417	89.4	1.	9.6
	1,961,374	1,271,692	32,635	657,047	64.8	1.7	33.5

CHAPTER II.

THE CENSUS OF 1800—BEING THE SECOND ENUMERATION UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

The act of Congress which directed the second enumeration, added some new divisions of the white population to those of the first census. It discriminated between the sexes, and it distributed each under the five following heads, viz :

Those persons who were under ten years of age.
" " ten, and under sixteen.
" " sixteen, and under twenty-six.
" " twenty-six, and under forty-five.
" " forty-five and upwards.

The result is exhibited in the following table :—

TABLE OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1st OF AUGUST, 1800.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITE MALES.					WHITE FEMALES.							
	Under 10.	10 *and under* 16.	16 *and under* 26.	26 *and under* 45.	45 *and upwards.*	*Under* 10	10 *and under* 16.	16 *and under* 26.	26 *and under* 45.	45 *and upwards.*	*Free col'd persons.*	*Slaves.*	TOTAL.
Maine	27,970	12,305	12,900	15,318	8,339	26,899	11,338	13,295	14,496	8,041	818	.....	151,719
New Hampshire	30,594	14,881	16,379	17,589	11,715	29,871	14,193	17,153	18,381	12,142	856	8	183,762
Vermont	29,420	12,046	13,242	16,544	8,076	28,272	11,366	12,606	15,287	7,049	557	.....	154,465
Massachusetts	63,646	32,498	38,305	39,729	31,316	60,920	30,674	40,491	43,833	35,381	6,452	.....	423,245
Rhode Island	9,945	5,352	5,889	5,785	4,887	9,524	5,026	6,463	6,919	5,647	3,304	381	69,122
Connecticut	37,946	19,408	21,683	23,180	18,976	35,736	18,218	23,561	25,186	20,827	5,330	951	251,002
New York	100,367	44,273	49,275	61,594	31,943	95,473	39,876	48,176	56,411	28,651	10,374	20,343	586,756
New Jersey	34,780	15,859	16,301	19,956	12,629	32,622	14,827	17,018	19,533	11,600	4,442	12,422	211,949
Pennsylvania	103,226	46,161	54,262	59,333	38,485	99,624	43,789	53,974	53,846	33,394	14,561	1,706	602,365
Delaware	8,250	4,437	5,121	5,012	2,213	7,628	4,277	5,543	4,981	2,390	8,268	6,153	64,273
Maryland	35,852	17,392	21,234	22,778	13,394	33,796	16,437	22,367	21,170	11,906	19,587	105,635	341,548
Dis't of Columbia	1,588	671	1,178	1,332	539	1,577	663	1,027	1,028	463	783	3,244	14,093
Virginia	92,438	40,500	48,708	50,262	30,221	87,323	38,835	50,730	47,810	27,453	20,124	345,796	880,200
North Carolina	63,118	27,073	31,560	31,209	18,688	59,074	25,874	32,989	30,665	17,514	7,043	133,296	478,103
South Carolina	37,411	16,156	17,761	19,344	10,244	34,664	15,857	18,145	17,236	9,437	3,185	146,151	345,591
Georgia	19,841	8,470	9,787	10,325	4,957	18,407	7,914	9,248	8,835	3,894	1,019	59,404	162,101
Kentucky	37,274	14,045	15,705	17,699	9,233	34,949	13,433	15,524	14,934	7,075	741	40,343	220,955
Tennessee	19,227	7,194	8,282	8,352	4,125	18,450	7,042	8,554	6,992	3,491	309	13,584	105,602
Ohio	9,362	3,647	4,636	4,833	1,955	8,644	3,353	3,861	3,342	1,395	337	.....	45,365
Indiana	854	347	466	645	262	791	280	424	393	115	163	135	4,875
Mississippi	1,009	356	482	780	290	953	376	352	416	165	182	3,489	8,850
	764,118	343,071	393,156	431,589	262,487	725,197	323,648	401,499	411,694	248,030	108,395	893,041	5,305,925

This census, besides informing us of the actual numbers then in the United States, made us further acquainted with the rate of our increase, and which proved to be somewhat greater than it had, on the authority of Dr. Franklin's opinion, been previously estimated.

The whole population was thus distributed:

White males	2,204,421	
" females	2,100,068	
		4,304,489
Free colored		108,395
Slaves		893,041
Total		5,305,925

The increase in ten years, was—

Of the whole population	35.02 per cent.
" whites	35.68 "
" free colored	82.28 "
" slaves	27.96 "
" whole colored population	32.23 "

It must be recollected that the white population was increased by immigration, and the free colored by emancipation. The increase from the first source was estimated, on such imperfect data as he possessed, at 60,000 in the ten years from 1790 to 1800. But since an account has been taken of the foreign emigrants who arrive in our sea-ports, as well as from the intrinsic evidence afforded by the enumerations themselves, we must regard his estimate as much too low. The number of refugees from St. Domingo was known to make a considerable addition, at that period, to the steady stream of European emigration. The accession to our numbers from this source, instead of about 1½ per cent, as Dr. Seybert supposed, was probably not short of 3 per cent.

The distribution of the three classes of our population, compared with that of the preceding census, may be seen in the following table:—

	By the Census of 1790.	*By the Census of* 1800.
The proportion of the white population	80.73 per cent.	81.12 per cent.
" " free colored	1.51 " "	2.05 " "
" " slaves	17.56 " "	16.83 " "
	100.	100.
Consequently, the proportion of the whole free population was	82.24	83.17
" " whole colored	19.27	18.88

The age of sixteen divided the white population, as at the preceding census, into two nearly equal parts, and the excess of those under sixteen was yet less than in 1790. Thus,

The number of white males under sixteen was	1,117,169	
" " females "	1,038,845	
		2,156,014
The number of white males over sixteen	1,087,252	
" " females "	1,038,845	
		2,126,097

The white population is thus distributed according to ages, viz:

Those under the age of ten	34.6	per cent.
" between ten and sixteen	15.5	"
" between sixteen and twenty-six . . .	18.4	"
" between twenty-six and forty-five . .	19.6	"
" forty-five and upwards	11.9	"

which shows the numbers under and above sixteen to be yet nearer than 50.1 to 49.9.

The males of the whole white population exceeded the females in the proportion of 100 to 95.3, but there is great diversity in the proportion between the sexes at different ages. Thus,

Of those under ten years of age,* the proportion of males to females was as	100	to 94.9
" between ten and sixteen . . .	" 94.3	
" between sixteen and twenty-six . .	" 102.1	
" between twenty-six and forty-five . .	" 95.4	
" over forty-five	" 94.5	

It appears from the preceding statement, that, notwithstanding the greater number of males born, yet from the greater number also who go abroad as travellers or seafaring men, or who die from casualties, the females between sixteen and twenty-six exceed the males between the same ages; and it may be presumed that they would maintain the excess in the after periods of life, but for the foreign emigrants, who consisted, at that time, far more of males than females. The small gain of the males on the females between ten and sixteen is probably to be referred to the same cause; though a part may be ascribed perhaps to the greater mortality of females at that period of life.

Although in every state of the Union the males, under ten, and between that age and sixteen, exceed the females, yet in the subsequent ages there is a great diversity among the states, for in all the New England states, except Vermont, the excess of females over sixteen is so great as to outweigh the excess of males under sixteen; and thus make the whole number of females exceed that of males; as may be thus seen, viz:

In Maine the white males were		74,069	the females	76,832
New Hampshire,	"	91,158	"	91,740
Massachusetts,	"	205,494	"	211,299
Rhode Island,	"	31,858	"	33,581
Connecticut,	"	121,193	"	123,528

In Vermont, however, the males of every age exceed the females. This diversity is doubtless owing principally to the seafaring habits of the people in the five first-mentioned states, and partly to the great number of emigrants which they send forth to the states south and west of them, who are or were mostly males. Vermont, on the other hand, must have gained greatly by immigration, as its population was nearly doubled in ten years, and thus its males, even between sixteen and twenty-six, somewhat exceeded its females.

The number of white females between sixteen and forty-five was

* Dr. Seybert, in his Statistics, p. 44, states, that of the persons under ten, the females exceeded the males. It is due however to him to remark, that while his computations appear to be accurate, according to the data he possessed, he has often been misled by the errors in the first publications of the first and second census, which a more careful revision of their returns has subsequently shown.

813,193, equal to 18.9 per cent of the whole white population; and this may be regarded as the ordinary proportion of married and marriagable women in this country, though it will of course be somewhat affected by a change in the rate of increase.

The increase of the whole colored population, which neither gains nor loses much by migration, gives us very nearly the ratio of increase by natural multiplication. Supposing this ratio to be the same with the two races, then the further gain of the white population must be referred to immigration. By this rule, the accession to our numbers by foreign emigrants would be in ten years 3.45 per cent, equal to the difference between 35.68 and 32.23 per cent. If however some deduction be made from the seeming ratio of increase of 32.23, on account of the small number of Africans imported into South Carolina and Georgia between 1790 and 1800, and we further assume, as many do, that the natural increase of the slaves is greater than that of the whites, then our decennial gain from immigration must be set down at yet more than in the above estimate.

The second census showed a very great difference in the rate of increase among the different states. Thus, while the population of Georgia and Vermont nearly doubled, and that of Kentucky and Tennessee trebled in the ten years, that of Connecticut, of Delaware, of Maryland and Rhode Island increased less than 10 per cent. The difference was caused almost wholly by the flow of the population from the states where it was most dense to those where it was least so.

Table showing the number and proportions of whites, free colored, and slaves, in the slaveholding states, on the 1st of August, 1800:

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	*Total population.*	*Whites.*	*Free colored.*	*Slaves.*	PER CENTAGE OF		
					Wh'es.	*F. Col.*	*Slaves.*
Delaware	64,273	49,852	8,268	6,153	77.5	12.9	9.6
Maryland	341,548	216,326	19,587	105,635	63.3	5.7	30.9
Dist. of Columbia	14,093	10,066	783	3,244	71.6	5.4	23.
Virginia	880,200	514,280	20,124	345,796	58.4	2.3	39.3
North Carolina	478,103	337,764	7,043	133,296	70.7	2.4	27.9
South Carolina	345,591	196,255	3,185	146,151	57.7	.9	42.3
Georgia	162,101	101,678	1,019	59,404	62.7	.7	36.6
Kentucky	220,955	179,871	741	40,343	80.5	1.2	18.3
Tennessee	105,602	91,709	309	13,584	86.8	.3	12.9
Mississippi Ter.	8,850	5,179	182	3,489	57.9	2.7	39.4
TOTAL	2,621,316	1,702,980	61,241	857,095	65.	2.3	32.7

It thus appears that, in the slaveholding states, the white population had gained a little on the whole colored, and yet more on the slaves, who from being somewhat more than a third of the whole population, were now somewhat less.

CHAPTER III.

THE CENSUS OF 1810, BEING THE THIRD ENUMERATION UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

The population was distributed under the same heads by this census, as by the census of 1800; but in addition to the population in the former territory of the United States, it comprehends that which was contained in the settled parts of Louisiana, which was purchased from France in 1803. The accession to our numbers from this source was about 77,000. The following table shows the whole population of the United States on the 1st of June, 1810.

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1ST OF JUNE, 1810.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITE MALES.					WHITE FEMALES.							
	Under 10.	10 *and under* 16.	16 *and under* 26.	26 *and under* 45.	*Over* 45.	*under* 10.	10 *and under* 16.	16 *and under* 26.	26 *and under* 45.	*Over* 45.	*Free col'd persons.*	*Slaves.*	TOTAL.
Maine,	41,273	18,463	20,403	22,079	13,291	39,131	17,827	21,290	21,464	12,515	969	...	228,705
New Hampshire,	34,084	17,840	18,865	20,531	14,462	32,313	17,259	20,792	22,040	15,204	970	...	214,360
Vermont,	38,062	18,347	19,678	20,441	13,053	36,613	17,339	21,181	20,792	11,457	750	...	217,713
Massachusetts,	68,930	34,964	45,018	45,854	34,976	66,881	33,191	46,366	49,229	39,894	6,737	...	472,040
Rhode Island,	10,735	5,554	7,250	6,765	5,539	10,555	5,389	7,520	7,635	6,372	3,609	108	77,031
Connecticut,	37,812	20,498	23,880	23,699	20,484	35,913	18,931	25,073	26,293	22,696	6,453	310	262,042
New York,	165,933	73,702	85,779	94,882	53,985	157,945	68,811	85,139	85,805	46,718	25,333	15,017	959,049
New Jersey,	37,814	18,914	21,231	21,394	16,004	36,065	17,787	21,184	21,359	15,109	7,843	10,851	245,555
Pennsylvania,	138,464	62,506	74,203	74,193	52,100	131,769	60,943	75,960	70,826	45,840	22,492	795	810,091
Dalaware,	9,632	4,480	5,150	5,866	2,878	9,041	4,370	5,541	5,527	2,876	13,136	4,177	72,674
Maryland,	38,613	18,489	22,688	25,255	15,165	36,137	17,833	23,875	22,908	14,154	33,927	111,502	380,546
D. of Columbia,	2,479	1,158	1,520	2,107	866	2,538	1,192	1,653	1,734	832	2,549	5,395	24,023
Virginia,	97,777	42,919	51,473	52,567	35,302	90,715	42,207	54,899	51,163	32,512	30,570	392,518	974,622
North Carolina,	68,036	30,321	34,630	34,456	21,189	65,421	30,053	37,933	33,944	20,427	10,266	168,824	555,500
South Carolina,	39,669	17,193	20,933	20,488	11,304	37,497	16,629	20,583	18,974	10,926	4,554	196,365	415,115
Georgia,	28,002	11,951	14,085	14,372	7,435	26,283	11,237	13,461	12,350	6,238	1,801	105,218	252,433
Kentucky,	65,134	26,804	29,772	29,553	17,542	60,776	25,743	29,511	25,920	13,482	1,713	80,561	406,511
Tennessee,	44,494	17,170	19,486	19,957	10,656	41,810	16,329	19,864	17,624	8,485	1,317	44,535	261,727
Ohio,	46,623	18,119	20,189	22,761	11,965	44,192	16,869	19,990	19,436	8,717	1,899	...	230,760
Indiana,	4,923	1,922	2,284	2,316	1,125	4,555	1,863	2,228	1,880	794	393	237	24,520
Mississippi,	4,217	1,637	2,692	3,160	1,444	4,015	1,544	2,187	1,753	675	240	17,088	40,352
Illinois,	2,266	945	1,274	1,339	556	2,019	791	1,053	894	364	613	168	12,282
Louisiana,	5,848	2,491	2,963	5,130	2,508	5,384	2,588	2,874	3,026	1,499	7,585	34,660	76,566
Missouri,	3,438	1,345	1,568	2,069	967	3,213	1,265	1,431	1,369	562	607	3,011	20,845
Michigan,	800	351	583	763	340	640	332	368	311	130	120	24	4,762
TOTAL,	1,035,058	468,083	547,597	571,997	364,836	981,421	448,322	561,956	544,256	338,478	186,446	1,191,364	7,239,814

The distribution between the white and the colored races was as follows:

Whites, (males,) . . .	2,987,571	
" (females,) . . .	2,874,433	
		5,862,004
Colored, (free,) . . .	186,446	
" (slaves,) . . .	1,191,364	
		1,377,810
		7,239,814

The decennial increase, from all sources, compared with that of 1800, was—

	1810.	1800.
Of the whole population . .	36.45 per cent . .	35.02 per cent.
Of the whites	36.18 " . .	35.68 "
Of the free colored . . .	72. – " . .	82.28 "
Of the slaves	33.40 " . .	27.96 "
Of the whole colored, bond and free	37.58 " . .	32.23 "

The greater rate of increase of the whole population, exhibited in the preceding comparison, is to be ascribed principally to the acquisition of Louisiana, and in a small degree to an increased importation of slaves before 1808, when it was known that Congress would avail itself of the power it would then possess, of prohibiting their further importation. These two circumstances are sufficient to account for the excess of increase under the census of 1810, which did not exceed 75,000 persons; and, indeed, as the slaves imported and acquired with Louisiana, probably amounted to more than half this number,* the remainder is not equal to the white inhabitants which Louisiana contained, and consequently we are justified in inferring, notwithstanding the augmented ratio of actual increase, a small diminution in the rate of gain from immigration or natural multiplication, or both united.

The three classes of the population were distributed in the following proportions, in 1790, 1800, and 1810:

	1790.	1800.	1810.
The white population .	80.73 per cent,	81.12 per cent,	80.97 per cent.
Free colored . . .	1.51 "	2.05 "	2.57 "
Slaves	17.56 "	16.83 "	16.46 "
	100.	100.	100.
Of the whole free pop.	82.24 "	83.17 "	83.54 "
Whole colored . . .	19.07 "	18.88 "	19.03 "

It thus appears that the free colored population had a greater proportional increase than either of the other two classes; and that while the

* Supposing the natural increase of the colored population to be the same from 1800 to to 1810, as from 1790 to 1800, and there is no reason for supposing it to be different, then the difference of the decennial gain in this class, shown by the two enumerations, shows the accessions to this class from the purchase of Louisiana and from importation. That difference is 5.35 per cent on the whole colored population, which is equal to 53,576.

whole free population gained on the servile, the whole colored gained a little on the white.

The age of sixteen continued to divide the white population into two nearly equal parts, but the small excess of those under that age continued to diminish, thus:

Whites under 16, males . . .	1,503,141	
" " females . . .	1,429,743	
		2,932,884
Whites over 16, males . . .	1,484,430	
" " females . . .	1,444,690	
		2,929,120

which shows the proportion under sixteen to be 50.03 per cent. But as the proportion of the females under that age was greater than that of males, the former being 50.26 and the latter 49.69, we may infer that if there were no migration to the United States, which consists more of adults and of males, than of children and females, an age somewhat below sixteen would constitute the point of equal division.

The distribution of the white population, according to age, differs little from that shown by the preceding census, viz:

Those under ten were	34.4 per cent.
" between ten and sixteen . . .	15.6 "
" between sixteen and twenty-six . .	18.9 "
" between twenty-six and forty-five .	19. "
" of forty-five and upwards . . .	12. "

The increase in 20 years was as follows, viz:

Of the whole population	84.2
Whites	84.8
Free colored	213.5
Slaves	70.7
Whole colored	81.9

The proportion of males to females in the white population was as 100 to 96.2, showing an increase of females of 1.1 per cent since the census of 1800.

At the different ages specified in the census, the proportions of the sexes were as follows, viz:

Under ten, the males to the females were as	100 to	94.8
Between ten and sixteen . . .	"	95.7
Between sixteen and twenty-six . .	"	102.7
Between twenty-six and forty-five . .	"	97.3
Forty-five and upwards . . .	"	92.7

which proportions exhibit the same features of irregularity as those of the preceding census.

The number of white females between the ages of sixteen and forty-five, was 1,106,212, which is 18.87 per cent of the whole white population, showing a very small variation from the proportion exhibited by the preceding census.

The following table shows the number of whites, free colored, and slaves, in the slaveholding states and territories, on the 1st of August, 1810, with the relative proportions of each:

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	*Total population.*	*Whites.*	*Free colored.*	*Slaves.*	PER CENTAGE OF		
					Wh'es.	*F. Col.*	*Slaves.*
Delaware	72,674	55,361	13,136	4,177	76.2	18.1	5.7
Maryland	380,546	235,117	33,927	111,502	61.8	8.9	29.3
Dist. of Columbia	24,023	16,079	2,549	5,395	66.9	10.6	22.5
Virginia	974,622	551,534	30,570	392,518	56.6	3.1	40.3
North Carolina	550,500	376,410	10,266	168,824	67.8	1.8	30.4
South Carolina	415,115	214,196	4,554	196,365	51.6	1.1	47.3
Georgia	252,433	145,414	1,801	105,218	57.6	1.7	41.7
Kentucky	406,511	324,237	1,713	80,561	79.8	.4	19.8
Tennessee	261,727	215,875	1,317	44,535	82.5	.5	17.
Mississippi	40,352	23,024	240	17,088	57.	.3	42.7
Louisiana	76,556	34,311	7,585	34,660	44.8	9.9	45.3
Missouri	20,845	17,227	607	3,011	82.6	2.9	14.4
TOTAL	3,480,904	2,208,785	108,265	1,163,854	63.5	3.1	33.4

It appears from the preceding table that both descriptions of the colored population in these states had gained on the whites in the preceding ten years, and that the slaves which in 1800 had constituted a little less than a third of their aggregate number, now amounted to a little more than a third.

ART. II.—THE COMMERCE OF SYRIA.—No. II.*

ARTICLES OF TRADE IN SYRIA.

Timber.—The forests of Northern Syria have been of late years drawn upon for large supplies of timber, both for public and private purposes. The mountains back of Scanderoon supply the arsenals of Alexandria, and could supply much larger quantities if the mountains were less steep, and there were any roads. For this reason, too, the mountains of Byass are better timbered than those of Beilan, &c., (which are more accessible from the sea,) both as to variety, quantity, and size of timber. The trees on them are white and yellow pine, of lengths from 100 to 150 feet, and of dimensions, to take a square of from 24 to 25 inches, say yellow oak, 80 feet, and 18 to 20 inches in square; green oak, 18 to 20 feet, and 7 to 9 inches in square; beech, 30 to 35 feet, by 14 to 15 inches square; linden, 40 to 50 feet, by 25 to 27 inches in square. The pine is mostly knotty, but very full of turpentine. The oaks of both species are straight-grained, like the American. The beech is of good, close-grained quality, but not nearly so plentiful as the other two. The linden-tree is scarce. In 1838, about 150 woodcutters and 300 trimmers and dressers were employed, and about 50,000 trees cut and brought down; but 10,000, cut in 1837 and 1838, were abandoned from the difficulties of transport and want of roads, which could not be made for less than 15 or 20,000 dollars. An axe-man earns 2½ piastres per day, and the trimmers and dressers about 3 piastres; but if the tree is unsound it is their loss. 70,000 to 80,000 trees were shipped in 1838 to Alexandria, say 14,000 tons. Timber 15 to 18 inches square, prepared for the saw or for working, stands in, ready for

* Concluded from page 511, Vol. VI.

shipment, about 1 piastre per foot. Inch-planks 25 to 30 feet long, and over a foot broad, cost 3 to 3½ piastres each, or a little more than a farthing per foot.

Cotton.—That of Northern Syria is fine, but of a short staple, and only adapted to the most ordinary purposes; the greater part is much inferior to the Souboujas, from near Smyrna, and generally equal to the middling and inferior qualities of Kennie and Bainder. It is seldom sent to the English market, but to the Italian, French, and German ports. That of Aleppo is best, of Edlip, inferior, of Beld, Azass, and Aintab worse, and of Killis, worst. The average export to Europe is 500 to 600 cantars per annum; and 80 to 100 cantars have gone during the last three years to Mesopotamia. Its cultivation is the chief agricultural employment in the district of Adana, and cotton is the principal export of that district; a middling crop is 10 to 12,000 cantars, an abundant one 18, and even 20,000, of which 1,000 to 2,000 are annually exported to Europe; 5,000 to Romelia and the Archipelago, also to Smyrna, where it is mixed and sold for Smyrna cotton. 6 to 7,000 cantars are sent to Kaissarieh, where the country merchants resort, and whence the borders of the Black Sea are supplied, some of the Adana cotton being exported also from Sinope to Russia. 5,000 cantars are sent to different parts of Anatolia, (i. e. Asia Minor,) a large quantity to Mousnel, Diarbekir, Orfa, Merdin, &c. and 100 to 150 cantars to Syria. The total value of cotton produced in Adana and Northern Syria, is about 24,000,000 piastres, or $1,200,000. In the Nabulus district, in Palestine, 4,500 to 5,000 cantars are annually produced, about three fourths of which are exported. Acre and Jaffa also produce some. On the whole, Northern and Southern Syria may be estimated to produce 30 to 35,000 cantars, at an average value of 350,000 pounds sterling; but the production may be almost indefinitely increased by additional capital and labor.

Silk.—The mulberry flourishes admirably on the coast and through the more fertile parts of the Lebanon range, and the cultivation of silk spreads rapidly about Beyroot. The peasantry get one fourth of the silk for taking care of the worms and reeling; the landholder providing leaves and sheds, which are a simple structure of reeds, without a roof. The cultivation might be indefinitely extended, and silk might supply, in a greater degree, the great desideratum of Syrian trade, viz, articles of export. The silk of Antioch, Suedich, and their environs, 180 to 220 cantars, is brought to Aleppo, which consumes 75 to 80 cantars. Aleppo also receives 35 to 40 cantars from Amassir, and from Beyroot, Tripoli, and Mt. Lebanon, 70 to 80 cantars. In 1836, 20 cantars went to England, 30 to France, 50 to Genoa and Leghorn. The silk is worth 300 to 380 piastres per 1000 drams.

The staple is good, the growth of the worm being nourished by a mulberry leaf well adapted to its nature; but it is wound off coarsely and in long reel, which unfits it for the best purposes in Europe. The introduction of the short reel would increase the export vastly; but Syria has entirely neglected to follow the example of the French and Italians in meliorating the quality of her raw silk.

Tripoli and its vicinity furnished, in 1836, 421 bales, weighing 157½ cantars, for exportation, 233 to Marseilles, 141 to Leghorn, 12 to Trieste, 16 to Egypt, and 17½ to Aleppo; and the prices ruled from 95 to 105 piastres per oke; it was in 1839, 120 to 140 piastres per oke. An abundant

crop for the Tripolitan district is 400 cantars; most of which is sold for Beirut, Hamah, and Homs, and some is manufactured at Tripoli; most of what goes to Beirut is shipped to France and Italy. Exclusive of the Tripoli district, Mt. Lebanon produces 1,200 cantars annually, or 240,000 okes, at 120 to 125 piastres per oke; two thirds are exported. The consumption of British cottons having slackened the demand for silk for the interior, silk cultivation is rather on the decline.

Wool.—Fifteen hundred cantars are got in Aleppo and its environs, one tenth of which it makes into a felt (ketgzes) for carpets, horse coverings, packings for goods, also into stocking yarn, surtouts, &c. The consumption in Mt. Lebanon, Homs, Hamah, Marash, Aintab, and the environs, is about 800 cantars. 700 to 900 cantars are sent to Europe; the quality is generally fine, but it is unclean and mixed, worth in its gross state about 160 piastres per cantar. Its high price, and mixed and foul condition, prevent its export to Britain, and it is chiefly sent to France and Italy. 80 to 100 cantars are collected and consumed in the Tripoli district. The nomade tribes bring some to Hamah, Homs, or Aleppo, which is not all consumed. In 1837–8, Tripoli, which purchases thence, sent 115 cantars to Leghorn, 72 to Trieste, and 8 to Marseilles. In 1838, the price was 700, and in 1839, 800 piastres per cantar of 180 okes. The wool trade to England might become important, but the Syrian flocks far from suffice for food to the people; Aleppo alone annually consumes 55,000 to 60,000 sheep, 20,000 of which come from Erzeroum, and the rest from the nomade tribes. 80,000 go from Erzeroum and Mesopotamia to Hamah, Homs, Damascus, and the south, and are sold at 65 to 80 piastres each, averaging 70 piastres, making a total of 5,600,000 piastres, partly for cash and partly on credit.

Olive-oil.—The olive tree yields, at most, an abundant crop every other year; sometimes only once in four years. 8 to 10,000 cantars of oil are used at Aleppo, 5,000 of which are got from the environs. Damascus consumes, for soap-boiling, burning, and eating, 4,800 to 5,000 cantars, one fourth of which is from the environs, and three fourths from Safid, Nabulus, and the southward. Ibrahim extended the cultivation of the olive, and introduced an improved mode of expressing the oil. French oil-presses have lately been used with success.

Wine.—This might be made valuable, both for consumption and export. Some convents on Lebanon produce the "Vino d'Oro," a wine of excellent quality. But the habit of boiling wine is almost universal, and destroys its character; and the use of skins is unfavorable to the preservation of the finer characteristics.

Madder-roots are but partially cultivated; some in the Aleppo district, more in that of Damascus, and most at Nebk; a little also in the plains of Homs and Hamah, and at Aleppo; in all 70 to 80 cantars are grown, 25 to 30 or 35 of which are consumed at Aleppo, 30 to 35 are sent to Mesopotamia, and the price is 2 piastres per oke, or 4 per rottolo. A great deal is produced at Karaman, Nekde, Akserail, and some near Kaisserieh; but the greater quantity is cultivated at Erehli, two days' journey on the other side of Mt. Taurus, on the road to Constantinople, by way of Adana, and may be transported conveniently for shipment to Tarsous. The annual produce is 300 cantars, and the average price $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ piastres per oke. When Dutch and French madders are high in Europe, and principally in England, and the crop at Yourdes, in the Saroukan Sandjak, is

large, it supplies Smyrna for shipment to England; and madders, both from Erehli and Cyprus, are purchased for the European markets. Madders might be largely produced in Syria; they grow abundantly, and almost without cultivation, as well as on the mountains of Cyprus, whence they are received in bulk, and packed in bales at Beirut for England and Europe.

Yellow-berries.—Many fruitless attempts have been made to cultivate this berry, which grows wild in the mountains near Antioch, but must be cultivated to become merchantable. But neither from the indigenous tree, nor from the gardens of Kaisserieh, where it is produced in the highest perfection, have the efforts succeeded to extend its cultivation.

Indigo grows wild in several parts of Palestine, but attention seems not to have been given to its cultivation or collection.

Sugar.—The sugar-cane has been partially cultivated near Beirut. It was extensively cultivated in the time of the crusaders, in the sultry but well-watered plains of Jericho, where are still ruins of several sugar mills. There appears no reason to doubt the aptitude of the soil for its production in many parts of the country.

Cochineal.—Ibrahim successfully introduced the cochineal near Tripoli, where the cactus, on which the insect feeds, thrives very well.

Goats' wool.—This comes from Erzroom, Kaisserieh, Karpout, Malatia, Diarbekir, Aintab, and a little from Antioch. There are fine qualities from each of these places; the best is of Karpout, Aintab, and Antioch, the latter especially, which is also much the cleanest, and equal to what is shipped from Smyrna; but from want of knowledge, and of persons to clean and work it at Aleppo, it is not prepared in an equally fine state. Most of it goes to Italy, and a little went to France in 1836. About 7,970 rottoli were imported into Aleppo, and the whole was exported in a clean state, amounting to about 6,976 rottoli. Inferior qualities, in the gross state, are worth 15 piastres per rottolo, and 17½ clean; the best, 2,100 piastres per cantar, and 2,250 cleaned—or 21 and 22½ piastres per rottolo. English merchants have not yet imported it to England.

Tobacco.—All the tobacco raised is consumed in the country or sent to Egypt, its use being universal, both by males and females. Next to wheat, it is the most important product, but it is impossible to estimate the amount. It is grown almost everywhere, but chiefly in Aleppo, Latakia, Tripoli, and Mount Lebanon, where are got the finest qualities. No tobacco is imported, and what is grown pays duty, on retiring it from the lands, of 34 piastres per cantar, and also 3 piastres per cantar on exportation. Damascus imported and used in 1836, 230,578 okes of tobacco, and 302,000 of tombag; in 1837, 190,577 okes, and 117,210 of tombag.

Hemp.—In the Damascus district 1,200 to 1,500 loads are produced, at 60 piastres per load, amounting to from 900 to 1,000 cantars. About one half as much is produced in the Aleppo district. It is chiefly used for cords, twine, &c., and is not exported.

Beeswax.—200 to 250 cantars of yellow beeswax are annually collected in the Aleppo district, from Aintab, Killis, Antioch, Idlip, and their environs; 50 cantars are used in the manufactories and by the dyers, and as much by the population and in the Christian churches of Aleppo. 50 are used at Aintab, Killis, Antioch, and their environs. The export to Europe seldom exceeds 100 cantars, and varies, according to demand and price, from that to 50. The Tripoli district collects 100 cantars—barely

sufficient for home consumption; but parcels are brought in from Hamah and Homs. In 1839, 10 cantars went from Tripoli to Marseilles, and 2 to Trieste. The price has ruled from 3,000 piastres to 3,200 and 3,400 per cantar.

Scammony.—Some is produced in Northern Syria, but not much, though Aleppo gives its name to what is deemed the best. It is scarcely ever obtained pure, being adulterated at almost every stage. The peasants collect it by perforating the root of the plant, and adulterate it by starch and myrrh; the buyers also add to its impurities before it reaches the Aleppo market.

Soap.—When the oil crop is abundant, Aleppo, Idlip, and Killis make 350 to 400 coppers of soap, each rendering from 20 to 22 cantars of clear soap; viz, Aleppo 200 to 250, Idlip 100 to 120, Killis 10 to 15 cantars. But some is also sent to the coast of Latakia, Tarsous, and Adana. Each copper requires 17 cantars of oil, and 13 to 15 of soda or barilla. Total soap made, 1,000 to 2,000 cantars. The charges on boiling a copper are 5,000 piastres, 600 of which is a government duty. Aleppo exports three quarters of its annual product, chiefly to Mesopotamia, and another government duty of the same amount, i. e. 30 per cent, is paid. The price varies from 700 to 800 piastres per cantar; some has been successfully exported to Mediterranean ports. At Jerusalem, Nabulus, Gaza, Lod, and Ramleh, 500 coppers of 3,200 okes each, are made, three fifths of which are exported to Egypt. Damascus makes 100 coppers, Deir el Kane 200—none for export. The Nabulus soap is highly esteemed in the Levant.

Barilla.—The barilla or soda consumed in making soap in Northern and Southern Syria, comes from the banks of the Euphrates, near Deir, Hamah, Homs, and the Hauran; the usual price is 70 to 75 piastres per cantar. It is exported to Candia, but none to Europe.

Sponge.—This is not exported from Aleppo, but as it is procured along the coast from the Tripoli to the Latakia district, it forms a branch of commerce meriting attention. Any adventurer may fish for it, by paying 100 piastres to government. Fishermen from the Archipelago come and get it for Smyrna, &c. The Syrians in a successful season get 1,500 okes of fine sponge, worth 130 to 180 piastres; 1,500 middling, worth 15 to 18 piastres; 500 large horse ordinary. The quantity is partly sold to speculators, for Europe, but the major part is sent to Marseilles and Smyrna by the country traders.

Mines and minerals.—A silver mine was discovered by the Egyptian government, in the northern range of Taurus, six hours from Tarsus, and an English engineer who directed its works, died there; since then an Italian engineer was employed, and afterwards Prussian and Austrian engineers. It produced a very small portion of silver to the quantity of lead. The government still worked it in 1839, but with what success is not known. The Prussian engineers were reported to have found abundance of iron ore on Jebel Akra, but no mining or working of it is known of. There are iron mines at Duma and Rihan, in Mount Lebanon, which had been placed by government at the disposal of the Emir Beschir, on his paying annually a certain sum for the produce, about 1,200 or 1,500 cantars, not more than enough for the horse-shoes and nails of his district. The distance of smelting fuel prevents the more extensive working of the mines.

Coal mines.—Ibrahim wrought some on Lebanon, but the difficulty of access and cost of transport rendered the result doubtful. The quantity is considerable, but rather sulphurous. The 114 workmen get 3 piastres each, per day. In 1837 there were dug 14,700 cantars of 217 okes, each making about 4,000 tons.

Salt.—It is of general consumption in Syria, and is found in great abundance at different points; but for the supply of the south the greater part is from Palmyra and Keriatin, and for the north from Geboul, on the road to Belis, on the Euphrates. The usual price is from 2 to 4 piastres per medde.

Saltpetre is made on the banks of the Euphrates, by the Arabs, who manufacture their own powder, but it does not seem to be brought thence to Syria, whose government received its powder from Egypt; consequently there was little consumption of it, as the population was disarmed, and little use is made of it for the chase.

Manufactures.—"Of the manufactures for which Syria was formerly renowned, few have escaped the destruction with which successive invasions and the gradual depopulation of the country have been accompanied. Damascus and Aleppo alone retain a few relics of their ancient manufacturing glory. In the towns of secondary order there is scarcely the memory, certainly not the vestiges, of its former industry."

Silk and cotton fabrics.—In Damascus are 4,000 looms for silk and cotton stuffs, each of which produces weekly from 4 to 5 pieces, of 11 pikes in length by one in width, containing about 100 drams of silk and 100 of cotton twist, of Nos. 16 to 24. The price per piece is from 80 to 95 piastres. The price of labor is fixed at so much per piece, which is from 8 to 10 piastres. The looms for cotton stuffs number about 400, which make each about 7 to 8 pieces per week, requiring about 200 drams of cotton twist, Nos. 16 to 24; each piece is 11 pikes long and 1 broad. The price is 20 to 21 piastres; and the labor is paid at 6 piastres per piece. In Aleppo are about 1,200 silk and cotton looms, which make about one piece each per day. In 1829, there were 5,900 to 6,000 looms at work; but of these stuffs, being of a rich and costly kind, the consumption has fallen off. Since the decline, about 500 looms have been set to work for cotton alone, which consume British cotton twist, of Nos. 16 to 24. In Lebanon are about 1,200 looms, 300 of which make silk and cotton stuffs, used by the natives; 300 make the abbas, the coarse woollen garment of the peasantry; and 600 are for coarse cotton stuffs for shirting. But even those who weave these garments are employed also in agriculture, while at Damascus the largest portion of the working classes are engaged in manufactures.

Of gold and silver thread.—Aleppo consumes of it 150,000 drams; Bagdad and Bassora 100,000; Damascus and environs 75,000; Homs and Hamah 25,000; Mount Lebanon, Beirut, and the coast 50,000; Anatolia 25,000, and Mesopotamia 25,000 drams. Smyrna used to consume a great deal, but is now overstocked for several years.

Of rosaries, &c.—In Palestine many people get their living by making crosses, beads, rosaries, and amulets, and mother-of-pearl shells, which are brought generally from the Red Sea, and engraved with religious subjects, chiseled in relief. The monopoly of the trade, which formerly was freely conducted in the market place of Bethlehem, and in many

parts of Jerusalem, is now in the hands of the Terrasanta monks, and at monopoly prices.

The working classes of Syria are marked for their cleverness, sagacity, aptitude, and promptness to understand and accomplish their most difficult tasks.

Export commerce.—Cotton wool, silk, sheep's wool, olive oil, sugar, indigo, the finer qualities of tobacco, and many other articles, might be provided on a large scale, had labor and capital their full influence. But even the import trade suffers considerably for the want of commodities for the European markets, and this is so much felt that many articles can be imported into Mesopotamia and Persia from Smyrna and Constantinople, more cheaply than from Scanderoon and Beirut, because of the lower freights from Europe paid to ports which offer a return cargo; hence it is a great desideratum in the interest of Syrian commerce, that there should be a more regular and abundant supply of articles for export. Only part of the vessels bringing manufactures from England can obtain return cargoes in Syria, and must go to Smyrna, &c. Sometimes they can make up a load at different ports on the coast, but this is uncertain.

Gums and drugs were formerly articles of great importance, but are at present of a very limited trade.

Gum-arabic is received from Bagdad and Egypt; there are two sorts, the red and the white, worth 7 to 9 piastres per oke. But 3 cantars are consumed in Aleppo, and it is rare if there is a surplus in market for shipment to England. The pistachio, apricot, and prune produce gums used in Syria, the two last as a substitute for gum-arabic, which is worth 10 piastres per oke, while the other two are worth but 2 or 3 piastres.

Assafœtida comes from India and Muscat, by Bagdad. None is now consumed, received, or exported from Aleppo. Its nominal price is 10 to 12 piastres per oke.

Tragacanth is received from Anatolia, Marash, and Mesopotamia; formerly it came from Bagdad, and was shipped to Europe. Now that from Karpout is mostly used at Aleppo, though some is received from Diarbekir; the first is worth 6 piastres per oke, and the second and third 5 piastres. Aleppo and its districts use 20 to 25 cantars, and about as much is sent to Damascus. There is seldom in the place more than two or three cantars for exportation to Europe.

Scammony is a gum resin, the produce of a species of convolvulus or creeper plant, which grows in most parts of Anatolia and in Northern Syria; it is obtained by an incision made into the roots, which yield a milky juice, and is received in sea-shells placed for that purpose; when kept it becomes hard. It is valued as a purgative and laxative, and much purchased and used by the English antibilious pill proprietors, as it has a powerful antibilious virtue. It is rarely obtained in a pure state; the collectors first adulterating it with flour or starch, to give it color and consistency, and mixing gum-myrrh with it to give it a bitter and aromatic taste. It then is sold to the country and Jew dealers, who further adulterate it in the same manner, mixing 4 or 5 rottoli of starch to one rottolo of scammony. Its price is 250 to 300 piastres per rottolo; an inferior quality is sold at 15 to 20 piastres per rottolo.

Senna is received from Egypt; none is cultivated in Northern Syria; nor is it an article received from Egypt for shipment from hence to Europe; about one or two cantars are required for the consumption of Aleppo.

Opium is not cultivated in this part of Syria; about two or three loads are received of that produced at Afion, Kara-Hissar, Akshehr, in Anatolia, for the consumption of Aleppo and the north of Syria.

Incense is received from Egypt, and is of limited consumption for the country only. It is calculated, that for the north of Syria, two or three cantars are required annually; and about the same quantity is exported to Mesopotamia and the northern part of Asia Minor.

Skins.—Hare, fox, and jackal skins are collected and received from Tokat, Kaisserieh, Karpout, Malatia, Diarbekir, Aintab, and Basna. There is no consumption for them in Aleppo. In 1836, about 18,700 hare skins were received, and after being assorted, about 17,500 were exported; prices from 1830 to 1833, 2½ to 3¼ piastres per skin; but during 1837, 1838 and 1839, 1½ piastres, and without buyers. A small trial was made of them to the English market. They have been chiefly sent to the French and Italian ports, and are consumed by the hatters for making hats of fine quality. 300,000 skins of hare, fox, and jackal, are exported from Tarsous to different ports, but none to England.

Galls, or gall-nuts, (in Turkish *mazi*, in Arabic *afis*,) form a principal export of Syria. They abound in Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, Syria, and Persia, and are of three species, white, green, and blue; but their chief locality is on the mountains near Mosul, on the Tigris. The real Mosul galls are the best, but all that are gathered in the surrounding country are sold under that name. The annual gathering is 7,000 to 10,000 cantars, including 70 to 80 from the Singar mountains and Giaour Dagh of Killis. Aleppo uses 50 to 60 cantars annually, the rest goes to Europe. 2,000 cantars were imported into Aleppo from Mosul, in 1836, and exported. The price at Mosul is 1,200 to 1,300 piastres per cantar, and has been 2,000, though the nominal price is 1,400 to 1,500 at Aleppo. In 1838, 700 cantars went to England, 1,000 to Marseilles, and 300 to Italy; but most of all these are supposed to find their way to England also; for notwithstanding the trade between Aleppo and England is open, it frequently suits buyers to apply to trading ports in the Mediterranean for Syrian produce. The duty and charges from Mosul to Scanderoon are 580 piastres per cantar, or nearly 25 per cent. The journey is of 40 days, and with camels, at 20 miles a day, say 800 miles; cost £15 sterling per ton for carriage alone. 30 to 50 cantars of galls are gathered at Tripoli; in some seasons more. A little is consumed in the country, the rest is exported; in 1836, 45 sacks went to Marseilles, 21 to Leghorn, and 10 to Trieste. About the same quantity is collected in the Latakia district, and sent to France and Italy. The annual Bagdad caravan brings to Damascus many, collected about Mosul and Bagdad; in 1838, 800 cantars were thus brought, and forwarded to Beirut for France and Italy. The cost of transport is about the same as from Mosul to Scanderoon.

Saffron.—The finest comes to Syria from Persia, Adamish, in Anatolia, and Erzroom. Of the first, in 1836, 250 okes were received, worth 400 piastres per oke; of the second, 150 okes, worth 500 piastres; the third are about 350 per oke. The fine qualities are used for gold thread, as the bright yellow enables to dispense with some of the gold. In 1836, 63 cantars came, inferior, worth 2,000 piastres per cantar, and were exported to France.

Safflower.—20 to 25 cantars are produced in the gardens and fields of Aleppo; 70 to 80 at Hamah, Homs, and Nebk; the whole is consumed

in Syria for coloring rice pilaws and other eatables. It is worth 18 to 20 piastres per rottolo. The cultivation is not sufficient to produce a quantity for exportation; the quality being very inferior to that produced in Egypt.

Yellow berries.—This production of Kaisserieh averages 15,000 to 18,000 rottoli per year, most of which goes to Constantinople, though formerly to Smyrna, whither but a quarter of that quantity is now sent. From these ports it goes chiefly to London—some to Trieste, Marseilles, and Italy. 800 rottoli are sent from Kaisserieh also to Diarbekir for consumption, and as much to Malatia, Karpout, Aintab, Aleppo, and Damascus. Its price fluctuates; ordinarily it is 150 to 160 piastres; in 1839, 100, in 1836, 260 piastres per kunkari of 3 rottoli. To Constantinople and Smyrna, there is no duty; to any other place, 2½ per cent. Cost of carriage to Constantinople and Smyrna, 150 to 200 piastres per 90 rottoli; small charges, 15 piastres per load. It is used by calico printers and dyers, producing a bright yellow.

Tarsous and Scanderoon, from their nearness to Kaisserieh, would be eligible ports for the shipment to England of this article, but it is not brought to them nor to Aleppo, though it might always be employed by the Aleppo merchants for their returns. A small quantity is produced at Marash, ordinary, worth 2½ to 3½ piastres per rottolo, but it is not exported, being all used at Aintab, Aleppo, &c.

Import commerce.—This consists chiefly of colonial produce and European manufactures.

Coffee.—All kinds are consumed at Aleppo, but chiefly St. Domingo and Havana, received from French and Italian ports, say 40,000 okes, and of Mocha, 23,000 okes. 792 bags (23,760 rottoli) came from England in 1836–7, at the price of 16 to 17 piastres per rottolo; one third is consumed at Aleppo, the rest goes to Mesopotamia and the interior. There were disposed of in a similar way, 36,750 rottoli, in 330 barrels and 725 bags, price 17 to 18½ piastres; and from Italy 11,325 rottoli, at 17 to 18½ piastres, say 321 bags.

Damascus uses 75,000 to 85,000 okes, chiefly St. Domingo and Havana, and from France and Italy, though some goes from England. A good deal of Mocha is also consumed in Damascus, most of which comes from England and Marseilles; 30 to 40 cantars are annually received from Bagdad, and some 15 or 20, contraband, by the pilgrims' caravan from Mecca, which sell higher than that brought by sea; the actual price is 13 to 14 piastres per oke. Damascus consumes on an average 150 cantars, sometimes 180 to 200; in 1836, it imported of Mocha and European coffee 75,122 okes, and in 1837, 86,210.

Sugar.—Aleppo consumes 250 to 300 cantars, in loaves and powder, and exports 150 to 200; of crushed, East India, or moist, 200 cantars are used, and 25 to 30 sent to Mesopotamia. The loaf sugar comes from England, and more from France; the crushed chiefly from England. There are received from Europe 178 cantars in loaves, 211 crushed, 36 moist, and 26 fine crushed. Damascus and its environs, and the supply for Bagdad, require 500 to 700 cantars of loaf, which comes wholly from France; and 300 to 400 cantars of crushed, mostly from Britain. In 1836–7, Aleppo received 358 sacks, each weighing 25 rottoli, and 484 barrels—in all 45,645 rottoli, the ruling prices of which were from 10 to 12 piastres each, in barrels, and 10 to 10½ per rottolo, in sacks. The

crushed and refined is English, that in sacks East Indian. Two thirds of the above is consumed in Aleppo, and one third sent into the interior. From France, in 1836–7, came 44,000 rottoli, in 114 barrels and 766 cases; prices 12½ to 13 piastres per rottolo; two thirds is consumed at Aleppo, and one third goes to the interior and Mesopotamia. From Italy came 73 cases and 100 bags; same prices, and same disposal—in all 8,650 rottoli. Damascus imported from Europe, of loaf and powder sugar, in 1836, 121,417 okes, and in 1837, 112,722, mostly loaves.

Rum is of limited consumption, and that imported is of most inferior quality, of the Leeward Islands, and other low qualities brought by the Americans into the Mediterranean. None of the superior rum from the British West India islands is brought to Syria, as the consumers would not pay an adequate price. It is, moreover, an article of *appalto*, i. e., farmed by those agencies for the sale of common aquardent, or arrack and wine, the former of which is principally consumed by the population in Syria, both on account of its cheapness, being distilled from dried raisins, and because it yields a strong spirit.

Rice is of great and extensive consumption; it comes chiefly from Egypt, but in 1836–7, about 540 bags were received from England, each weighing 15 rottoli; price 5 to 6½ piastres per rottolo. This was consumed in Aleppo. Damascus imported in 1836, 13,500 baskets, each weighing 40 rottoli, and in 1837, 12,500 rottoli.

Spices generally are received from Europe, and some are imported from the East Indies *via* Bagdad.

Cloves.—7 to 10 cantars are used annually in Aleppo, and 5 or 6 consumed in its environs and sent to Mesopotamia. In Damascus only 3 or 4 cantars, or about 800 okes, are annually wanted.

Pepper.—100 to 120 cantars are used annually in Aleppo, and 40 to 50 sent thence to Mesopotamia. In Damascus about 80 to 90 cantars, or 18,000 okes, are annually wanted. In 1836–7, there were received from England at Aleppo, 710 bags, equal to 10,515 rottoli—ruling prices 11½ to 12 piastres; half for Aleppo use, and half for the interior. From France, 135 bags, equal to 4,050 rottoli, 11 to 12 piastres per rottolo; one half for Aleppo, the other half for Mesopotamia. From Italy, 237 bags, equal to 3,555 rottoli—ruling prices 11 to 12 piastres each; half for Aleppo, and half for the interior. Damascus imported in 1836, 23,470 okes, and in 1837, 27,247.

Pimento.—15 to 20 cantars are annually consumed in Aleppo; 10 to 15 in Damascus. In 1836–7, there were received from England at Aleppo, 1,200 rottoli—prices 12 to 12½ piastres each; half is used at Aleppo, half goes into Mesopotamia. From France, 5,870 rottoli—ruling prices 12 to 12½ each; one half for Aleppo, one half for the interior. Damascus imported in 1836, 3,118 okes, and in 1837, 3,534.

Cinnamon.—10 to 12 cantars of canella, or cinnamon, are annually consumed at Aleppo, and 5 to 6 sent into the interior. Damascus consumes but 3 to 4 cantars.

Cochineal.—7,000 okes are used in Aleppo, one half for dyeing the silk and cotton twist for the manufacture of stuffs, and half by the dyers for other uses. Damascus requires 30,000 okes, for the same use chiefly. It is received principally from France and Italy, though parcels sometimes come from England, which furnished in 1836–7, 5,880 okes; ruling prices 130 to 150 piastres each. Half is used at Aleppo, the other half for the

interior. France sent 6,510 okes, and Italy 5,740, of the same price and destination. Damascus imported in 1836, 7,434 okes, and in 1837, 11,644.

Indigo.—Aleppo consumes of this 14,000 okes annually; some is also annually sent at times to Mesopotamia, and Aleppo supplies its environs, viz, Idlip, 15 to 20 cantars; Antioch, 3 to 5; Killis, 2 to 3; Aintab, 8 to 10; Marash, 5 to 6; Basna, 3 to 4. For Damascus 50 to 60 cantars are required, and chiefly consumed there. Indigo comes from the East Indies, both through England and Bagdad, though there is a small importation from France and Italy of Guatimala indigo, in ceroons. In 1836–7, Aleppo received from England 8,500 rottoli—prices 180 to 220 piastres each; two thirds for Aleppo, and one third for the interior. From France, at the same price and for the same destination, 200 rottoli; from Italy 550 rottoli, the same prices, two thirds for Aleppo, one third for Mesopotamia. Damascus imported from Europe, in 1836, 10,205 okes, in 1837, 4,728; and from Bagdad 7,399 and 1,071.

Brazil wood.—35 to 40 cantars of Pernambuco, or Brazil wood, are used annually at Aleppo; it is called Fernambouch, but generally arrives from Bagdad, and is said to be received there from the East Indies. That from Europe is sent to Aintab, Marash, Malatia, Diarbekir, and other parts of Mesopotamia. Not more than 25 to 30 cantars are used at Damascus; 15 to 20 cantars of Nicaragua, or St. Martha's wood, are consumed annually at Aleppo; 40 to 50 at Damascus. Of logwood, or Campeachy wood, 25 to 30 cantars are used at Aleppo, and 40 to 50 at Damascus.

Dye-woods.—Two kinds are consumed in Damascus, and come from the East Indies, by Bagdad; one called Zarbad, of which 30 to 40 cantars are used, and that of Genghil, of which 25 to 40 are employed.

Copperas.—35 to 40 cantars are used in Aleppo; and there were imported there from England, in 1836–7, 121 casks, equal to 7,260 rottoli; prices 200 to 250 piastres each; half consumed at Aleppo, half in the interior. Damascus imported in 1836, 3,914 okes, and in 1837, 12,239.

British goods.—The establishment of British commercial houses in Syria, in 1833, has been followed by a large increase in the demand for British manufactures, but they have been particularly affected by the disturbed state of the country. Orders are now given by Syrian houses to agents for the British manufacturers who are established at Beirut; a payment is made in advance, which is remitted to England, and the balance is paid on the arrival of the goods.

British, French, Italian, and German imports.—From England, Aleppo received in 1836–7, 5,336 bales and 53 cases of British manufactures; of domestic long-cloths, 20,000 pieces in 1836, and twice as much in 1837; Damascus, for the city and its environs, and for Bagdad, took 800 to 1,000 bales, or 700,000 pieces.

From France, only two bales came in 1836–7, consisting principally of prints of Switzerland, and in very small quantities. From Italy, 293 bales, of all sorts, but a considerable part British. Each bale is estimated at 3,000 to 5,000 piastres, about one third of which, say 97 bales, is consumed in Aleppo, and the other two thirds go into Mesopotamia.

From Germany come 94 bales, little or none of which is British, principally printed handkerchiefs from Germany; each bale valued at from

5,000 to 8,000 piastres. One third is used in Aleppo, the rest in the interior.

Each British bale is valued at from 3,000 to 5,000 piastres, and very few 6,000 to 8,000. Aleppo consumes half, and half is sent to Mesopotamia, Armenia, and as far as Persia. Damascus imported in 1836, 32,981 pieces, and in 1837, 25,952 pieces.

Aleppo takes off about 14,000 pieces of cambrics, shirtings, and madapolans annually; the consumption has however considerably increased. Damascus, for itself and Bagdad, takes off 16,000 to 20,000 pieces; it imported, in muslins generally, in 1836, 29,088 pieces, and in 1837, 25,409, though the consumption is declining on account of the Aleppo and Damascus imitation fabrics.

Imitation shawls.—19,939 pieces of imitation zebra shawls were imported at Aleppo in 1836, and the consumption was increasing, as also that of Damascus, which receives a like amount, and about 2,000 pieces of lappets annually; and in Aleppo, in 1836, 2,500 were sold, which was the average demand.

Cotton prints.—Damascus receives annually from England, about 10,000 pieces of prints, of two and three colors. The consumption is on the increase, but the manufactured cotton and silk stuffs of the country are preferred, which checks the consumption of British prints; the latter are employed by the female sex, and the former by the men, for their long dresses. At Aleppo, in 1836, 19,380 pieces of different kinds of prints were received, great part of which were consumed in that part of Syria, and some sent to Mesopotamia; this trade is increasing. Damascus imported in 1836, 36,095 pieces, and in 1837, 30,537.

Cotton twist.—Aleppo uses for her different manufactures, &c., about 180,000 to 200,000 okes annually, of Nos. 10 to 30 and 40 to 60. It supplied to Aintab, Marash, and Malatia, 80 to 100 bales; to Orfa, 20 to 30; to Merdin, 20 to 25; to Diarbekir, 250; to Mosul, 80 bales of two Nos., and 50 of No. 50; to Hamah and Homs, 200 bales, the latter sometimes receiving its supplies from Aleppo, and sometimes from Damascus, 21,000 okes, annually. Damascus and Bagdad take off 150,000 to 180,000 okes, of Nos. 16 to 24, annually, and the trade increases.

Cotton water twist.—Aleppo received from England, in 1836–7, 3,877 bales, valued at 2,000 to 2,200 piastres each; two thirds of which went to Mesopotamia, Armenia, and as far as Trebizond.

Mule yarn.—Aleppo, in 1836–7, took 600 bales, valued at 3,200 to 3,400 piastres each; two thirds for consumption, one third for the interior. Damascus imported in 1836, 115,622 okes, and in 1837, 137,510 okes.

Iron.—Iron in bars is received at Aleppo from Great Britain, France, and Russia; Marash also produces some. Aleppo consumes 250 cantars annually; that from Marash, being ductile, is preferred for some purposes. British iron is not yet brought into consumption to that extent it is capable of, though its use is on the increase. Damascus imported, in 1836, 328 cantars.

Tin.—Most of the tin consumed is brought from Great Britain; 25 to 30 cantars are used in Aleppo, and 80 or 90 sent thence to Mesopotamia. The consumption of Damascus, with that sent to Bagdad, is about 150 cantars. In 1836–7, Aleppo received from England 163 barrels, containing 7,335 rottoli; ruling prices 24 to 28 piastres; one third for Aleppo,

the rest for the interior. Damascus imported in 1836, 4,533 okes, and in 1837, 5,055.

Salammoniac.—8 cantars, or 1,600 okes, are annually required for Damascus, chiefly from Britain; whence Aleppo also received, in 1836–7, 2,450 rottoli; ruling prices 24 to 26 piastres. One third is consumed at Aleppo, the rest goes into Mesopotamia and the interior. Damascus received in 1836, 1,128 okes, and in 1837, 3,794.

Tin plates.—The Aleppo consumption is extremely limited. Damascus uses but 400 cases annually. In 1836–7, Aleppo received from England 84 cases of 225 plates each; ruling prices 250 to 280 piastres per case. Two thirds used at Aleppo, the rest in the interior. Damascus imported in 1836, 106 boxes, and in 1837, 169.

Woollen cloths.—None are received from England; a very small and unsuccessful trial has been made, both at Aleppo and at Damascus. Syria is supplied from France with the Languedoc cloths, and some are received from Trieste, of the Belgium manufacture, which are fast taking the place of the former. In 1836–7, Aleppo received from France 398 bales, of 12 pieces each, of various qualities; each bale valued at 4,000 to 6,000, and as high as 80,000 piastres; half is used at Aleppo, half is exported to the east. Only a bale or two are imported from Italy. Germany sent 44 bales through Trieste, of 12 pieces each, and valued at 8,000 to 10,000 piastres per bale. It is similarly disposed of. Damascus, in 1836, imported 6,401 pieces, in 1837, 2,819.

Silk goods.—Of manufactured silks, none are received from Great Britain. Aleppo imported, in 1836–7, from Lyons, only 10 cases, each of 10 pieces of 35 pikes each; ruling prices 10 to 60 piastres per pike. French silks are not consumed at Aleppo, or in Mesopotamia, but they are generally purchased by the Persians. Damascus imported, in 1836, none, in 1837, 1,101 pikes.

Tarbonches, or red skull-caps.—None are received from England. Aleppo had from France, in 1836–7, 64 cases manufactured at Tunis. Each case has 50 dozen; ruling prices 200 to 400 piastres per dozen. The total quantity imported is 3,200 dozen, half for Aleppo, half for the interior. From Italy came 255 cases, generally Tuscan, each case of 70 dozen, equal to 17,850 dozen; ruling prices 70 to 120 piastres per dozen; one third for Aleppo, the rest for the interior. The Egyptian government manufactured what were wanted for the Egyptian army. Damascus imported, in 1836, 15,142 dozen, in 1837, 11,291.

Paper, for writing and common use, comes chiefly from Italy and France. Aleppo imported, in 1836–7, from France 280 bales of wrapping paper, of 30 reams each, at 10 to 12 piastres per ream; half for Aleppo, half for the interior. From Italy were received 166 bales, of 20 reams each, 25 to 40 piastres per ream, which met the same disposal. Damascus imported, in 1836, 19,299 reams of writing, and 5,940 of wrapping paper, and in 1837, 10,540, and 2,436.

Glass ware.—None comes from England; it is imported by Trieste from Bohemia. It is generally common ware, though some fine specimens are consumed by the higher orders. Aleppo received, in 1836–7, from Germany, 50 cases, which were disposed of there, being sold in retail to people coming from the interior, and a small portion is also sent to Bagdad.

Coral.—The markets of Syria are wholly supplied with manufactured coral from Genoa. Aleppo received, in 1836–7, 25 cases, of 10,000 to

50,000 piastres value. About 8 to 10 cases are sold in Aleppo, to the Persians and Bedawin, and the remainder is sent to Bagdad and Persia—say one third at Aleppo, and two thirds exported. Damascus imported in 1836, 45 okes, in 1837, 167 okes.

Slave trade.—"It is not carried on in Syria to a great extent. In the houses of the opulent a few negroes are seen, and among the wealthy Moslems generally one black eunuch at least, but the annual importation is small and diminishing. The supplies come down the Nile, and are shipped at Alexandria. Black slaves are never employed for field labor in any part of Syria. For household purposes they are seldom engaged, except in the harems, there being a sufficient supply of domestic servants, which, in Egypt, cannot be found among the native Arab races. The black slaves who are fortunate enough to be purchased for the more opulent Moslems, are well treated, and frequently comfortably settled by their masters, after a certain period of service. Their intermarriage with whites is not discouraged.

White slaves.—"The price of these has considerable augmented in Syria since the Circassian war, in consequence of the diminished importation. Dr. Bowring saw a Georgian Mameluke, of about 10 years old, sold at Nabulus for 7,000 piastres, equal to £70 sterling. One of the happy consequences of the non-arrival of slaves is, that the motives to the preservation of life are greatly increased by its increased value. The paternal ties are weakened in countries where the loss of children can be easily supplied by the purchase of slaves, and where the distinctions between the bondman and the free are very slight—so slight that the Mamelukes of a master are frequently more advanced than his own children, towards whom the habits of polygamy also seem to weaken the bonds of affection."

ORIENTAL CHARACTER, &c.

"There is in the inertness of the oriental character, a great impediment to commercial development. The habits of the people are opposed to activity, and the motives which elsewhere lead to the gradual, however slow, accumulation of property, are faint and insufficient; for the rights of property are but vaguely recognised, and a continuity of effort in any case whatever, is of very rare occurrence. The examples are few in which opulence is reached by a continuous dedication of energy and attention to a given end. Most of the wealth possessed by the Mussulmans has been the result of conquest—of the power of oppression, or of some fortuitous and accidental circumstances. It rarely happens that either agriculture, or manufactures, or commerce, is the source of a Mohammedan's opulence. Slow and careful accumulation is a rare virtue in the east. Where fortune visits, her visits are sudden and liberal; but as every thing is held by a slight and uncertain tenure, the possession of one day is succeeded by the poverty of the next; and if there be, as there almost universally is, a want of those untired exertions whereby, in Christian nations, men so frequently amass riches, still more is there a want of that prudence and foresight which check the march of destruction. No element in the Mussulman character is more opposed to the sound commercial principle, than their indifference to the progress of decay, their unwillingness to repair the ravages of time. Even when a little attention and a little expense would prevent a building or an establishment from

falling into ruin, nothing is done to arrest the march of destruction. If an edifice be shaken with an earthquake, it is abandoned—it is seldom or never raised again on its foundations; that which is overthrown is never rescued or renovated. A ruined building, like a felled oak, remains in the dust forever. Even in the populous parts of some of the great cities of Syria, the heaps of ruins which have been left in the pathways by successive earthquakes, have not been removed. A few hours' labor would clear the wrecks away, but the passengers prefer to clamber up and down the piles of stones and fragments, rather than to displace them. So little disposition is there to alter or to interfere with what has been, that," continues Mr. Bowring, "we found the apartments of the castle of Aleppo in precisely the state in which they were abandoned to the conquerors; the halls strewed with armor, covered with broken bows, quivers, and arrows in tens of thousands, and numberless despatches with the sultan's signet, still scattered about the floor.

"Added to these obstacles, and operating in the same direction, the unchangeableness of the Mohammedan usages and institutions, is an almost invariable impediment to the development of commercial prosperity. The merchant is rarely an honored being. Those who wield the power of the sword and the authority of *the book*, the warrior and the ulema, are the two really distinguished races of society. All productive labor, all usefully employed capital, is regarded as belonging to something mean and secondary. In the ports of Syria, the presence of Europeans has modified, to some extent, the commercial usages of the country; but in the towns of the interior, in the great depôts, the bazaars represent the same system of commerce which existed many hundred years ago. Huge kahns receive the foreign merchants, who come with caravans from remote regions, and carry on their trades, both of sale and purchase, precisely as it was conducted by their forefathers. The bazaars are divided into different regions, such as that of the druggists, of spicemen, of the woollen-drapers, of the silk merchants, of the traders in cotton goods, the shoemaker, the garment seller, the ironmongers, and a variety of others. Each generally has a separate street for its particular department, and the sale and purchase of goods are carried on with considerable formality. The buyer goes to the shop of the seller—is treated to coffee and a pipe, and he then discusses the merits and the price of the merchandise in which he trades. The bargain is generally of slow arrangement. Independently of the bazaars, there are certain days on which auctions are held, and all sorts of goods are paraded up and down for public sale."

"But notwithstanding all impediments and difficulties, wherever repose and peace have allowed the capabilities of Syria to develop themselves, production and commerce have taken rapid strides. One of the immediate consequences of Ibrahim Pasha's conquest was, a sense of security, the establishment of an improved police, and an immediate extension of trading relations, principally due to the presence of Europeans. When the policy of peace was interrupted, commercial intercourse was deranged; the amount of imports and exports diminished, the number of merchants from foreign countries sensibly lessened, and the hopes of progressive improvement were all checked and disappointed. But both for agriculture and manufactures, Syria has great capabilities. Were fiscal exactions checked and regulated, could labor pursue its peaceful vocations, were the aptitude which the country and its inhabitants present for the development of

industry called into play, the whole face of the land would soon be changed. It appeared to me," continues Mr. Bowring, "that there was a great disposition to activity among large bodies of the peasantry, and much skill among the manufacturing laborers of the towns. There would, if properly encouraged, be no want of demand for European articles, nor of the means of paying for them; and among the articles most required, those furnished by British industry are particularly prominent.

"But the articles for which the sale would be most likely to extend, are such as, having undergone a process of manufacture as raw materials, lend themselves to further and final manufacture,—such as iron, copper, and tin plates for the making of sundry vessels; threads and yarns of silk, flax, woollen and cotton, &c. These and other such would be suited by oriental skill to oriental taste, better than western ignorance of those tastes could possibly fashion them. I noticed a reflux of opinion favorable to the manufactures of the country, they having already greatly benefited by the import of the half-wrought materials to which I have been referring; for in the finishing of most articles, the Syrians are not wanting in dexterity and experience; they have, like all orientals, a pretty accurate sense of the beauty and arrangement of forms and colors; the patterns they work, though not very varied, are generally graceful; their dyeing is excellent; their artisans dexterous and intelligent. They use, for the most part, a rude machinery, but their wages are high enough to keep them in tolerable condition; and were some of the modern improvements* introduced, there would be a revival of manufacturing prosperity."

Art. IV.—COMMERCIAL VOYAGES AND DISCOVERIES.

CHAPTER IV.

VOYAGE OF PEDRO ALVAREZ CABRAL.—VOYAGE OF JUAN DE NUEVA.—SECOND VOYAGE OF VASCO DE GAMA.

A new expedition to India was immediately resolved upon, and Pedro Alvarez was selected to command. It consisted of thirteen vessels, and twelve hundred men, besides a goodly missionary establishment of priests, monks, &c., who had orders "to begin with preaching, and if they found that would not do, to then try the sword." They set sail on the ninth of March, 1500, and after being drawn well over to the west, on the twenty-fourth of April discovered strange land, to which was afterward given the name of Brazil. After landing at several points, and setting up stone crosses, and having communication with the natives, whom they found well disposed, they left two criminals to inquire into the state of the country, and resumed their voyage to the cape. A few days after, they saw a large comet, and encountered a terrible tornado, by which four ships, with all their men, were lost, in one of which was the celebrated Bartholomew Diaz, the discoverer of the Cape of Good Hope.

After a succession of storms, the formidable cape was passed, and the fleet came to the neighborhood of Sofala, where they captured two Moorish vessels. Passing on to Yuiloa, they made a fruitless attempt to trade with the king, who at first, taking them for Moors, promised to pay in

* Such as the Jacquard loom, for instance.

gold for their merchandise, but who, when he found out they were Christians, pretended that the goods did not suit his market, and the Portuguese were compelled to go on to Melinda. Here they were again well treated, supplied with refreshments, and with two pilots for Kalicut.

On the thirteenth of September, Cabral arrived off Kalicut. Much time was lost from the mutual distrust on both sides, but at length hostages were exchanged, and Cabral visited the samorin, taking with him the present from the king of Portugal, which consisted of several pieces of rich silver plate, cushions of cloth of gold, a carpet, velvets, gold lace, and some pieces of tapestry. The samorin gave permission to establish a factory, and promised to load the fleet with spices and drugs; but the Moors again interfered, as in the case of De Gama, and continual quarrels and misunderstandings took place. The Moors, resolved to bring matters to a crisis, openly violated an order the samorin had given Cabral, for the exclusive purchase of spices, and commenced loading one of their vessels before the cargo of but two of the Portuguese ships had been completed. Cabral, judging that the Moors were acting by the connivance of the samorin, sent to complain of the breach of faith, and the delay which it occasioned. The samorin pretended to be highly incensed, and sent word that he might have liberty to search the Moorish ships that had violated his order. Wishing to bring matters to blows, the Moors commenced lading a ship openly. For some time Cabral refused to take any notice of her, but at length, urged to it by pretended friends, he sent his boats and took possession of her. As soon as this was known, the Moors assembled in a tumultuous manner, and inciting the populace of the city to aid them, they proceeded to the palace of the samorin, and demanded and obtained permission of the weak despot to attack the Portuguese factory. The first party of Moors that advanced were so few that the Portuguese thought it necessary merely to defend the gates with their cloaks and rapiers, but the numbers rapidly increased, and they were compelled to mount to the walls and use their cross-bows. At length they were pressed so hard, and by such an overwhelming force, who were getting up battering engines against the walls, that they were compelled, as a last resort, to make a sally by a gate leading to the beach, in hopes of escaping by the boats. They were closely followed by the crowd, and after performing prodigies of valor, and slaughtering an immense number of their enemies, twenty of them succeeded in getting clear. Among the survivors, was the famous Duarte Pachaco Pereyra,* who first distinguished himself in this expedition, and whose desperate valor soon rendered him famous throughout all Europe and the east, and the hero of a hundred ballads.

Cabral took a speedy revenge. He attacked several ships that were in the harbor, killed six hundred men, seized upon their cargoes of spices and drugs, and burnt the ships in sight of the enraged Moors. He then

* The exploits of the gallant Pachaco equal the most extravagant actions of the knights of romance. No disparity of force was too great for him. With one hundred and sixty men, and two or three small vessels, he repeatedly attacked a large force that had been brought against the king of Cochin, an ally of the Portuguese. He destroyed their ships, with several thousand men, and attacking them by land also, with the aid of three hundred natives, he at one time routed fifteen thousand men, and burnt several towns. At the end of five months, his enemies had lost twenty thousand men out of fifty thousand, and were compelled to give up the contest.

warped his ships close into the town, and commenced battering it with his cannon. Houses and temples soon tumbled about the heads of the terrified inhabitants, who, with their sovereign and his treacherous friends, the Moors, were compelled to fly into the country. After amusing himself in this way for a few hours, Cabral got under weigh and stood down the coast, in the direction of Cape Comorin, the southern extremity of Hindostan, until he came to Cochin. Here he was well received. He at once made a treaty with the king, who was not a little pleased with their treatment of his enemy, the samorin, and afforded them every facility for trade. An invitation also came from the kings of Kananor and Koulan, to visit them. To the first he paid a visit, and completed his lading by taking in four hundred quintals of cinnamon. Receiving an ambassador to the king of Portugal, he commenced his return voyage. After a variety of adventures, escaping a fleet sent after him by the king of Kalicut, encountering severe storms, which separated the vessels of his fleet, and capturing a Moorish vessel, he reached the coast of Africa, stopped to refresh at Mozambique, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, touched at the Cape de Verd, and arrived at Lisbon the thirty-first of July, 1501. Of the fleet that accompanied him, only six ships ever returned.

The voyage of Juan de Nueva was less disastrous. The expedition started several months before Cabral returned, and as it was supposed that amicable relations had been established with the samorin, and other Indian and African princes, it was not thought that much force was required, and accordingly De Nueva was furnished with only three ships and a caravel, carrying four hundred men. Touching at San Blas, they found in an old shoe a letter that had been written and deposited there by Pedro de Atayda, one of Cabral's captains, giving an account of the state of affairs at Kalicut. Thus warned in time, De Nueva directed his course to Cochin, where he found the factory that had been established by Cabral. The Moorish merchants exerted themselves to depreciate the Portuguese goods, and succeeded so far that De Nueva was unable to purchase a cargo, except for gold, and was compelled to go to Kananor, where the same difficulty awaited him, but which was obviated by the king, who went security for a thousand quintals of pepper, fifty of ginger, and three hundred of cinnamon.

While lying here a large fleet of *paraws* and boats, sent by the samorin, came into the bay to attack him, but the Portuguese used their great guns so skilfully and vigorously that the samorin's force was driven off with great loss, while the Christians lost not a man. After this exploit, De Nueva set sail for Portugal, where he safely arrived with all his ships.

The difficulties that Cabral had had with the samorin, showed the necessity of an efficient force, if the Portuguese intended to continue the trade, which was so lucrative, that even Cabral's voyage, so disastrous to men and ships, yielded a fair profit. It was accordingly resolved that a powerful force should be fitted out, part of which should be employed in trading, and part in blockading the mouth of the Red Sea, and cutting off the Moors, who were the chief cause of all their troubles. This fleet consisted of twenty sail. At first the command of it was given to Cabral, but it was decided that the exigency required the talents and energy of the great Vasco de Gama, who was invested with the rank of admiral of the eastern seas, with great pomp.

After touching at the usual points upon the African coast, capturing a

number of trading ships, and meeting with divers adventures, which our space compels us to omit, he arrived off the coast of India, near the territory of Kananor. Here he met a ship of great bulk, called the Meri, belonging to the sultan of Egypt, which was very richly laden, and full of Moors of distinction, who were going on a pilgrimage to Mecca. This ship being taken after a vigorous resistance, De Gama went on board and commanded the Moors to produce their merchandise, threatening, if they did not, to have them thrown overboard. They pretended that their riches were all at Kalicut; but one of them having been flung into the sea, bound hand and foot, the rest through fear delivered up their goods. All the children were carried into the admiral's ship,* and the remainder of the plunder given up to the sailors. After which Stephen de Gama, by order of the admiral, set fire to the ship. But the Moors having broken up the hatches under which they were confined, and quenched the flames, Stephen was ordered to lay them aboard. The Moors, desperate with apprehension of their danger, received them with great resolution, and even attempted to burn the other ships. Night coming on, he was obliged to desist without doing his work; but the admiral gave orders that the vessel should be watched, that the passengers might not, under favor of darkness, escape to the land, which was near. All night long the Moors called upon Mohammed to help them. In the morning, Stephen was sent to execute his former orders. He boarded the ship, and setting fire to it, drove them aft, where they defended themselves with great vigor. Many of the Moors, when they saw the flames approach them, leaped into the sea with hatchets in their hands, and swimming, attacked the boats. However, most of them were at length slain, and the others drowned or burnt up in the ship, which soon after sank; so that of three hundred persons, among whom were thirty women, not one escaped the sword, fire, or water."

Such a story as this is enough to make us deny De Gama's right to the epithet humane, which is frequently bestowed, did we not make proper allowance for the barbarity of his times. Besides, it amounts to a trifle compared with the atrocities which marked the course of some of his successors in their career of conquest and crime.

Arrived at Kananor, the admiral sent a message to the king, that he desired an interview with him. "For this purpose a wooden bridge was made, which entered a good way into the water. This was covered with carpets, and at the end towards land, a wooden house was built, furnished also with carpets. The king arrived first, accompanied by a large body-guard of nobles, with trumpets sounding and other instruments playing before him. Soon after the admiral came, with all the boats of the fleet furnished with flags, musical instruments, and ordnance, under the discharge of which he landed. He was conducted to the door of the house by a body of nobles, where the king received him, embraced him, and they then walked to the hall of audience. At this interview, a treaty of friendship and commerce was concluded, and a factory granted at Kananor, in consequence of which De Gama laded some of his ships, and then departed for Kalicut."

Arrived at Kalicut, he captured several vessels in port, but made no

* According to De Faria, to make them all friars, as an equivalent for one Portuguese, who had turned Mohammedan. Their number was twenty, and they were attached to St. Mary's church, at Belem, about a league from Lisbon.

demonstration against the town for several days, in order to give the samorin time to make any overtures of peace. At length a Moor, dressed in the garb of a Franciscan friar, came on board with a message from the samorin, to which De Gama refused to listen, unless, as a preliminary, the king would agree to indemnify him for the goods destroyed when he suffered the Portuguese factory to be attacked. Several messages passed to no purpose, when De Gama informed the samorin that he would give him to the hour of noon to make a satisfactory reply. "The samorin, influenced by the Moors, returned no answer. Wherefore, when the time had expired, De Gama ordered a gun to be shot off, which was a signal for his captains to hang the captive Malabars, who were distributed through the fleet. Being dead, he ordered their feet and hands to be cut off, and sent in a paraw, guarded by two armed boats, with a letter for the samorin, written in Arabic, giving him to understand that in such manner he proposed to reward him for his repeated breaches of faith and deceitful dealings, and that as for the king his master's goods, he would recover them a hundred fold. After this he ordered three ships to advance as near the shore as possible in the night; and next morning their ordnance was played without intermission upon the city, whereby many houses were demolished, and among the rest the king's palace. This done, he departed for Cochin, leaving Vincent Sodre, with six ships, to scour the coast and obstruct the Moorish trade."

At Cochin, De Gama was received with great kindness and pomp. He delivered to the king a letter from his royal master, thanking him for his kindness to Cabral, together with a magnificent present, consisting of a crown of gold, set with brilliants, gold collar, silver fountains and basins, tapestry, cloth of gold, velvets, and a splendid crimson silk tent. The king was much pleased with his present. He entered into a most favorable commercial treaty, by which was settled the rates that spices were to be delivered at, and a Portuguese factory allowed. He also gave a present in return, consisting of gold bracelets, precious stones, scarfs of silver tissue, Bengal calico, and "a stone as big as a walnut, good against all poisons."

While lying in this port, a message came from the samorin to say that if he would return to Kalicut he should have the privilege of trading, and that all their difficulties should be amicably settled. The admiral was suspicious of some snare, but contrary to the advice of his captains, he resolved to go with only his own ship, depending for help in case of need upon Sodre's squadron cruising off Kalicut. As soon as he made his appearance, the samorin, finding that he was unaccompanied by his fleet, resolved to capture him if possible. Thirty large paraws were ordered to attack him, and the admiral was obliged to cut his cable and stand out to sea. Here the paraws followed him, and would probably have captured him had it not been for the fortunate appearance of Sodre with his ships. Finding that his scheme had failed, the samorin exerted himself to detach the king of Cochin from his alliance with the Portuguese. He reproached him with his preference for Christian pirates, and tried to stir up the nobles of his court by bribery and intrigue, in which last he partially succeeded; but failing with the king himself, he resolved to commence an attack upon his neighbor as soon as the absence of the Portuguese should render it safe to do so; and in the mean time he busily employed himself in fitting out

a fleet of large vessels to intercept De Gama on his return, when he would, it was supposed, be deeply laden and unable to work his ships.

At parting, the king of Cochin informed him of all that the samorin had been doing, and gave the strongest assurances of his continued friendship for the Portuguese. De Gama promised him that he would be in no danger from the samorin, as the king his master would give him enough to do to defend himself without attacking others. Setting sail for Kananor, De Gama soon encountered the fleet which had been prepared by the samorin. It advanced towards him with some show of gallantry, but Sodre, with two other vessels, pushing on before the rest to receive them, attacked them with so much fury that the Moors were compelled to leap from their ships to escape their rage. Two large ships were captured, and three hundred Moors put to the sword. The other ships fled towards the land, where the Portuguese were prevented from following them by fear of the shoals. In the captured vessels there was much rich merchandise, and among other things a gold idol* weighing thirty pounds. The eyes were emeralds, and on the breast was an enormous ruby, and other precious stones.

At Kananor, De Gama completed his lading of spices, and leaving Sodre with his squadron of ships, with orders to worry the Moors and their friend the samorin as much as possible, and protect the king of Cochin, he set out on the twentieth of December, 1503, for home. After a stormy voyage in which some of his ships were separated from the fleet, he arrived in Portugal, where he was received with great and deserved honors. In a few days after, Stephen de Gama, whose ship had been dismasted in a storm, arrived in the Tagus. This expedition was not only glorious, but exceedingly profitable. Their spices yielded an enormous profit, and yet were sold so much lower than the same articles brought overland, that the Venetian was obliged to succumb to the Lisbon market.

As it may be interesting to some to know the ultimate fate of the hero who had contributed so much to the success of these most brilliant commercial enterprises, we will cite a note to one of the translations of Castanneda: "Don Vasco de Gama, now Count Videgueyra, (one of King Manuel's own titles, which he had transferred to him,) was, in the year 1524, appointed viceroy of India by King John III. He set sail with fourteen ships and three thousand fighting men. Three were lost on the voyage, with all the men of two. Being in the sea of Cambaya, in a dead calm, of a sudden the vessels tossed so that all gave themselves up for gone, every one casting about how to save himself. One leaped overboard, thinking to escape that way, and was drowned. Such as lay sick of fevers, were cured with the fright. Don Vasco perceiving that it was the effect of an earthquake, cried out aloud, 'Courage, my friends, for the sea trembles for fear of you, who are upon it.' To make amends for these misfortunes, Don George de Menesis, one of the captains, took a great ship of Mecca, with sixty thousand crowns. The new viceroy

* The term "Moor" is very indefinitely used by writers on this subject. It ought to be confined to the Arabian and Mohammedan merchants, and others residing in, or trading to, the cities of India. In this case it is decidedly a mistake, as a Moorish or Mohammedan crew would never tolerate an idol among them. The population of Kalicut consisted of a large number of these Mohammedans, with original natives, and a good proportion calling themselves Armenian Christians, and professing most of the doctrines of the Armenian church.

being arrived at Goa, visited a few forts, and gave the necessary orders for regulating affairs; but had not time to put any of his great designs in execution, for he died on Christmas eve, after he had held the government three months. He was of a middle statue, somewhat gross, and ruddy complexion. He is painted with a black cap, cloak and breeches edged with velvet, all slashed, through which appears the crimson lining; the doublet of crimson satin, and over it his armor inlaid with gold. De Gama had a natural boldness for any great undertaking. When angry he was terrible, patient under fatigue, and hasty in execution of justice; in fine, fit for all that was intrusted to him as captain, discoverer, or viceroy."

Art. V.—REDUCTION OF PRICE AND RATE OF DUTY.

REMARKS ON THE FALLACY OF THE DOCTRINE THAT, BY REDUCTION OF PRICE AND RATE OF DUTY, CONSUMPTION CAN BE INCREASED IN A GREATER PROPORTION THAN PRICE IS DECREASED, AND SO MUCH SO AS TO PRODUCE INCREASED REVENUE.

Lord (then Mr.) Brougham, in his speech on the opening of Parliament, February, 1825, speaking of duties as affecting the revenue, is reported, in the London Packet, to have said: "I then, as I thought, successfully showed that what Dean Swift had observed of the arithmetic of revenue was fully illustrated in the result, viz, that two and two did not make four on customary articles. With respect to the produce of the last laid wine duties, it was manifest that two and two did not make even three. In the article of coffee the same result was established, though by a different process. On coffee, the duties were reduced, and the consequence was, that an increased consumption gave you a much greater revenue than the large impost produced; while on the increase of the wine duties, there was such a falling off in the consumption as to lower the amount of revenue below that which was actually forthcoming on the lesser imposition." And in the Edinburgh Review for January, 1840, article "Post-office Reform," page 297, there occur the following passages.

"The degree in which reduction of postage would operate cannot be accurately estimated; but Mr. Hill has indicated a guiding principle which points at a *minimum* of increase, leaving its *maximum* still to be ascertained. His position is, that no reduction hitherto made in the price of any article in general demand, has diminished the total amount of public expenditure upon that article. And he adduces the following evidence in proof of its correctness:—

"'1. The price of soap, for instance, has recently* fallen by about one eighth; the consumption in the same time has increased by one third. Tea, again, the price of which, since the opening of the China trade, has fallen by about one sixth, has increased in consumption by almost a half. The consumption of silk goods, which subsequently to the year 1823, have fallen in price by about one fifth, has more than doubled. The consumption of coffee, the price of which, subsequently to 1823, has fallen

* That is, at the close of 1836.

about one fourth, has more than tripled. And the consumption of cotton goods, the price of which, during the last twenty years, has fallen by nearly one half, has in the same time been fourfolded.'—*Post-office Reform*, p. 70.

"'2. The sale of newspapers for the twelve months before the late reduction in stamps was 35,576,056,* at an average price, say 7d., costing the public £1,037,634.

"'For the twelve months subsequent to the reduction it was 53,496,207,† at an average price, say of 4¼d., costing the public £1,058,779.

"'3. The annual number of advertisements before the late reduction in the advertisement duty, was 1,010,000 at an average price, say of 6s., costing the public £303,000.

"'It is now 1,670,000, at an average price, say of 4s., costing the public £334,000.

"'4. The number of persons paying for admission to the Tower was, in the ten months prior to the late reduction 9,568, at 3s. each, (including the warder's fee)=£1,426.

"'In the ten months subsequent to the reduction it was 37,431, at 1s. each=£1,871.

"'The rule established by these facts, viz, that the demand for the article increases in a greater proportion than the price decreases; so that, if one thousand are sold at 1s., many more than two thousand would be sold at 6d., is, it is believed, without exception.'—*Third Report of the Select Committee on Postage.*"

These are great authorities; and it is perhaps rather a hazardous thing to say that the observation of the learned Dean, viz, that two and two did not make four on customary articles—that is, as illustrated by the showing of the great statesman, that increased consumption and consequent increased revenue resulted from decreased rate of duty—and the rule of the select committee, viz, that the demand for the article increases in a greater proportion than the price decreases, are both founded on erroneous inferences, and alike involve a fallacy. But we believe that they are so; and that the fallacy, like that of the sinking fund, and that of paper money, arises from mistaking the results of *particular* applications of a principle for the result of a *general* application of it; and amounts to a belief that it is possible, by some witchery in the science of political economy, to make two and two *really* make more than four, and falsify the schoolboy's axiom by proving that you *can* both have your cake and eat it.

Of the same nature, too—we remark by the way—as this fallacy, is that of supposing it possible to obtain protection to domestic industry and revenue at the same time, and from the same thing. A rate of duty upon foreign products, be it what it may, can only be *protection* in the degree that it is *prohibition;* and exactly in the degree that it is prohibition it will be *anti*-revenue.

The "rule established" by the showing of the great statesman—for such a rule we understand him to assert—is less in accordance with reason and common sense than that of the select committee. It assumes a much greater degree of increased expenditure as resulting from reduction of rate of duty, than that of the committee assumes as resulting from reduction

* No. 307, Session 1838. † No. 184, Session 1839.

of price; but we contend that in the theory of taxation you have no right to assume such increased expenditure at all; and that no "fact" in apparent proof of either of the rules, but what could be satisfactorily accounted for on other principles, has ever occurred in the practice. We contend that it is perfectly fair, and in strict accordance with reason and common sense, to assume that the public spend just as much money on taxable and other articles as they choose or can afford to spend. And, that exactly that which you give to the government, in the form of taxes, you take from the people, and that which you give back to the people you take from the government. And, that any results not in accordance with these simple and common sense views, are those of anomalies inseparable from the operation of revenue laws.

Among the most prominent of these anomalies are smuggling, speculative supply and demand, and the changing of demand from one article to another.* This last, indeed, is so comprehensive that we shall assume it, in our reasoning, as including *all* anomalies.

When a rate of duty is lessened there takes place a lessening of the motive for smuggling, and a consequent increase of means to purchase the article duty paid. Also, a speculative desire to be the first to bring to market at the reduced price, and a consequent withdrawal of capital from other things for the purpose. And, a changing of demand generally from things which have not been reduced in price, owing to such lessening of duty, to those that have.

These things manifest themselves in the appearance, and with much of the reality of "increased consumption;" but not an increased consumption capable of establishing a rule involving an increased aggregate expenditure; much less a rule involving an increase capable of producing an increase of revenue. The increase arises mainly from the giving back to the people. We repeat, that the public spend all that they choose or can afford to spend on taxable or other articles,—on wine, on soap, on tea, on silk goods, on coffee, on cotton goods, on newspapers, on sight-seeing—on every thing. Give them as much more for their money as you can; doubtless they will consume it; but away with the notion of increased aggregate expenditure and increased revenue.

But granting, for the sake of the argument, the right to this assumption, there is, surely, still, in the noble lord's showing, a great and palpable fallacy. For if the "lesser imposition" of duty gave the "greater revenue," why would not the lesser still give the greater still? and, by parity of reasoning, why would not the least possible imposition of duty give the greatest revenue? In illustration, let us suppose the consumption of wine to be 20 pipes, at a cost to the consumer of £50 per pipe, of which £20 per pipe is for duty. The expenditure would then be £1,000, and the revenue £400. Then suppose you reduce the duty to £19 per pipe, and by so doing you increase the consumption to 22 pipes; the expenditure would then be £1,078, and the revenue £418; that is, the public have been induced to spend £78 more on wine, and the "lesser imposition" of duty has given the "greater revenue." So far, so good. But then, as far

* The fluctuating action of the "credit system"—that is to say, of paper money—is also an anomaly. It causes a premature increase of the means of the public to increase expenditure, which is always followed by a proportionate decrease.

as the argument is concerned, unless you assume that, in the theory of taxation, there is a point, in determining the rate of duty, that is just that which is not too much, and just that which is not too little, and that you have now attained that point, you are precisely in the same situation that you were. Then suppose you reduce the duty to £18 per pipe, and by so doing you increase the consumption to 24 pipes; the expenditure would then be £1,152, and the revenue £432—that is, the public have been induced to spend £74 more on wine, and the lesser still has given the greater still. And it is clear that, as far as the argument is concerned, unless you assume this point somewhere, you might go on in this way until you came to the least possible imposition of duty; and we scarcely need say that to suppose that that could give the greatest revenue, is a manifest absurdity.

The "rule established" of the select committee, though more in accordance with reason and common sense, is any thing but a rule "*without exception.*" To be that, it must result from a general application of a principle, and not from particular applications of it. "These facts" must be made to prove that, if *all* articles were to decrease in price, the demand would increase in a greater proportion than the price would decrease; or, that the demand for those which did not decrease in price would remain the same; or, that the decrease in price, whether it resulted from reduction of rate of duty to the government, or of price merely, independent of duty, would *necessarily* increase the will and the power of the public to increase the "demand" beyond what the increased means—that is, the giving back to the people—resulting from such reduction, would enable them to do; since, without this proof, it is a fair and just inference from the nature of things, that the more than two thousand which would be sold at 6d. would be but the result of the consequent changing of demand from things that had not been reduced in price to those that had; or, of the increase of the will and the power of the public by the natural increase of population and wealth.

In illustration of this, let us suppose *all* taxable things divided into two parts, equally desirable and applicable as to the various purposes of life, and in a perfectly equal position as to consumption, price, rate of duty, expenditure, &c. &c.* and let us state this position in the following tabular form: See the first of the two following tables, which we will call the original position. Then let us suppose the rate of duty on the first part reduced to 1.* This change in the proportion of rate of duty will also change the proportion of total price; and the change in the proportion of total price, viz, from as 5 to 5 to as 4 to 5, will, we contend, by the all-pervading action and determinate tendency of money-price towards a level, change the proportion of all the other items of comparison exactly to the extent that will enable the proportion of total price to become equal again. You cannot keep the price of one part 4, and the other 5, because we have assumed equal desirability and applicability in them; they will both get to be 4½. The demand, price, and expenditure of the one will be increased, and that of the other decreased, until the level of total price is obtained. And the

* This equality is by no means necessary to the argument; it merely renders the illustration easier to be made and understood.

† The reasoning would be just the same if we supposed it *advanced* to 4.

increase and decrease of price will be in that part of it which we have called price without duty. We will also state this position in a tabular form.—See the last of the two following tables, which we will call the changed position.

Original Position.

	Consumption.	*Price without duty.*	*Duty.*	*Total Price.*	*Expenditure.*	*Revenue.*
1st part . .	1,000	3	2	5	5,000	2,000
2d part .	1,000	3	2	5	5,000	2,000

Changed Position.

	Consumption.	*Increase of Consumption.*	*Decrease of Consumption.*	*Price without duty.*	*Duty*	*Total Price.*	*Expenditure.*	*Revenue.*	*Decrease of Revenue.*
1st part	1,296*	296	. . .	3½	1	4½	5,832	1,296	704
2d part	926	. . .	74	2½	2	4½	4,168	1,852	148

Let us contemplate these tabular views for awhile, and see if we can discover in them aught to "confirm, or shake, or make a faith" in these various opinions upon the subject. We see in part the first of the changed position, that by reducing the rate of duty one half where, as seen in the original position, the consumption was 1,000 and the revenue 2,000, that, as at first sight it would seem natural to suppose would be the case, the revenue has not decreased 1,000; it has only decreased 704—two and two has *not* made four on customary articles.

If the learned Dean meant any thing at all by his observation, he meant precisely that which this hypothetical changed position shows. Increase or decrease of rate of duty is not followed by proportionate increase or decrease of amount of revenue—that is, by proportionate increase or decrease of the taking from or the giving back to the people. Reasoning from analogy, precisely as, in the operation of the national debt, the receivers of the interest pay themselves a part of that which they receive, so the government, in the process of taking from and giving back to the people, give back to and take from the people a part of that which they so take and give.

We will illustrate this further by looking at this changed position as a whole. The reader will perceive that there are in it three columns more than in the original position, viz: increase of consumption, decrease of consumption, and decrease of revenue. Now we contend that the 222 increase of total consumption, and which is the difference between the increase in the first part, and the decrease in the second, is exactly the 852 decrease of revenue in the two parts. 222 at the price of 4½ is just the difference between 1,000 at a duty of 2, and 1,000 at a duty of 1—viz, 1,000.† But the government does not lose 1,000; two and two do not make four on customary articles; for in the process of *giving* back the 1,000, it *takes* back 148, and therefore only loses 852; that is, it loses the difference between 2,000 at a duty of 2, and 1,296 at a duty of 1, and 926 at a duty of 2—which we will state thus:

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* This proportion of 1296 to 926, viz, as 7 to 5, we assume as a consequence of the changed position of price without duty, which change, we contend, is the effect of the determination of total price, or cost to the consumer, to become equal.

† 222 at 4½ is only 999. This and two or three similar errors, the reader who takes the trouble to examine the calculations, will perceive arises from omitting fractional parts, and taking the nearest whole number, and does not at all impair the illustration.

2,000 at 2 is		4,000
1,296 at 1 is	1,296	
926 at 2 is	1,852	3,148
	Difference,	852

and which is given back to the people in the form of an increased consumption, in part the first, of 296; which increase is the combined result of the increase of "demand" by the increase of means arising from the lessening of duty, and the withdrawal of it from things which have not decreased in price, to those that have—which we will state thus:

222, increase of total consumption resulting from lessening of duty; that is, the giving back to the people, at $3\frac{1}{2}$, the price without duty, is 777

The difference between 74, "demand" drawn, by the determinate tendency of money-price towards a level, from things which have not decreased in price at a duty of 2, to those which have at a duty of 1, is 74

851

But it is with the great statesman's illustration of the observation, rather than with the observation itself, that we have to do; though we have, we think, clearly shown its true meaning. Of that illustration, as establishing a rule, our hypothesis shows the utter unsoundness. There can be no increased consumption capable of giving an increased revenue, without an increase of expenditure, to an extent that, as an abstract proposition, renders the idea utterly absurd. We will, however, see how far it illustrates the rule of the select committee.

We have said that the fallacy which we are attempting to prove, arises from mistaking the results of *particular* applications of a principle, for the result of a *general* application of it, and we shall see how far our hypothesis will bear this out. We see in part the first of the changed position, that consumption, that is, "demand," has increased from 1,000 to 1,296, viz, 30 per cent, and price only decreased from 5 to $4\frac{1}{2}$, viz, 11 per cent; that is, demand has increased in a greater proportion than price has decreased, and the rule, *so far, is* established. But, then, the expenditure has increased from 5,000 to 5,832, viz, 17 per cent; and we have contended that in the theory of taxation, you have no right to assume such increased expenditure at all, and that no fact in apparent proof of it, but what could be satisfactorily accounted for on other principles, has ever occurred in the practice. What those other principles are in this case, we shall see by again looking at this changed position as a whole. We see that the total consumption has increased from 2,000 to 2,222, viz, 11 per cent, and the price decreased from 10 to 9, viz, 11 per cent; that is, the demand has increased exactly in the proportion that price has decreased; and the total expenditure is just the same, viz, 10,000. The increase in the first part is precisely the decrease in the second part: and upon this point our illustration entirely depends. We contend that the public spend just as much money as they choose, or can afford to spend, on taxable and other articles; and that the increased demand, and consequent increased expenditure in a greater proportion than the price has decreased, which the first part of the changed position shows, is but the drawing away from things that have not decreased in price to those that have; and the

increased demand, *not* in a greater proportion than the price, has decreased, which the position as a whole shows is, as before shown, but the decrease in the revenue. Exactly that which you give back to the people, you take from the government.

But this is mere hypothesis. Let us go to the "facts." The reader will perceive that they are contained in four parcels of evidence adduced by Mr. Hill, in proof of his position, "that no reduction hitherto made in the price of any article in general demand, has *diminished* the total amount of public expenditure upon that article." And an excellent position it is, and in strict accordance with reason and common sense, which clearly point out, that there are no reasons why it should. But why should it have *increased* the "total expenditure?" why at all, more than in proportion to the increase of means by the natural increase of population and wealth? Much more, why in a degree capable of producing an increased revenue? If our hypothesis has failed to show the reader how it *can* (apparently, that is) do the one, and how it can *not* do either the one or the other, let us see what we can make out of "these facts." Let us open the first parcel and arrange them in the following tabular form:

Article.	*Decrease of price.*	*Increase of consumption.*
Soap	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{5}$
Tea	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{5}$
Silk goods	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{4}$
Coffee	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{3}$
Cotton goods	$\frac{1}{3}$	$1\frac{2}{4}$

It is clear, however, that we can make nothing out of this, for it gives us no account either of the amount of "public expenditure," or of the rate of duty, both of which are necessary to our purpose; and the statement must go with the reader for what it is worth. No doubt it involves a large increase of expenditure. Had the facts entered into particulars, we might have been able to have formed a judgment. But let us see what we can make out of the second parcel, which we will also state in a tabular form:

	No. of newspapers.	*Per centage. Increase of papers.*	*Average price per paper.*	*Per centage. Decrease of price.*		
Before reduction,	35,576,056	—	7d.	—		
After reduction,	53,496,207	50	$4\frac{2}{3}$d.	47		
	Expenditure.	*Per centage. Increase of expenditure.*	*Duty per paper.*	*Revenue.*	*Per centage. Decrease of revenue.*	
Before reduction,	£1,037,634	—	$3\frac{1}{4}$d.	£481,759	—	
After reduction,	1,058,779	2	1d.	222,900	116	

Here we have the means of forming a judgment. We have the amount of consumption and of public expenditure and price stated; and the rate of duty is well known, and the amount of revenue, therefore, easily ascertained.* We have all the elements of perfect proof. We doubt if in the entire practice of taxation in England, there is any one "fact" so well calculated to prove the theory as this of newspapers. It is freer from anomalies than any other thing; the impost is through the medium of the stamp-office; smuggling and speculation therefore can have little or nothing to do with it—withdrawal of demand from other things may, perhaps;

* These, with some per centages, the reader will see, we have added to the table.

but as nearly as possible the true principle of operation stands naked and alone.

Here we see that, during the period stated, consumption, that is, "the demand," has increased 50 per cent, and the price decreased only 47 per cent; but the expenditure has increased 2 per cent, and the amount of revenue decreased 116 per cent. Now increase of demand in a greater proportion than price decreases, can *only* arise from increased expenditure, and will any one for a moment deny, that this "fact" of increased expenditure, upon which the increase of demand depends, cannot be fully and satisfactorily accounted for on other principles; viz, the increased will and power of the public, resulting from the natural increase of population and wealth during the same period? We think not.

Let us contemplate *this* tabular view for a while. It is a "fact," not an hypothesis. We see Mr. Hill's position fully sustained, as, indeed, why should it not be? We see that the amount of public expenditure has not diminished. But how fares it with the rule of the select committee, and the showing of the great statesman? Not a glimpse—no, not one solitary glimpse* of confirmation, either of the one or the other, can there be found in the analysis of this most important fact.

Let us also state the third parcel in a tabular form.

	Number of advertisements.	*Per centage. Increase of advertisements.*	*Aver. cost.*	*Per centage. Decrease of cost.*	
Before reduction,	1,010,000	—	6s.	—	
After reduction,	1,670,000	65	4s.	50	
	Expenditure.	*Per centage. Increase of expenditure.*	*Duty per advert'mt.*	*Revenue.*	*Per centage. Decrease of revenue.*
Before reduction,	£303,000	—	3s. 6d.	£176,750	—
After reduction,	334,000	10	1s. 7d.	125,250	41

Here we see demand increased 65 per cent, and price decreased only 50; expenditure increased 10 per cent, and revenue decreased 41. Mr. Hill's position is again fully sustained; and if the reader thinks that the 10 per cent increase of expenditure is more than the increase of population and wealth, during the same period, will account for, and will not admit the force of our reasoning as to anomalies, then is a glimpse of confirmation of the rule of the select committee discernible; but of the showing of the great statesman, not even a shadow.

We will also state the fourth parcel in a tabular form.

	No. of admissions.	*Per cent. Increase of admissions.*	*Price of admission.*	*Per cent. Decrease of price.*	*Expenditure.*	*Per cent. Increase of expenditure.*
Before reduction,	9,508	—	3s.	—	£1,426	—
After reduction,	37,431	293	1s.	200	1,871	31

Here, demand has increased 293 per cent, and price decreased only 200, and expenditure has increased 31 per cent. There is no revenue in the case; and we contend that to whatever extent the 31 per cent increase of expenditure, from reduction of price in this case, and the 10 per cent from reduction of rate of duty in the preceding case, is beyond the increase

* The increase of population during the twelve months may be fairly stated at 1½ per cent; surely quite enough to account for the 2 per cent increased expenditure. And as to revenue, it would take a "demand" for 115,622,160 papers! at an "expenditure" of £2,288,355 to give, at a duty of 1d., the same amount of revenue, viz, £481,759, that the duty of 3½ gave.

of means resulting from the increased will and power of the public, by the natural increase of population and wealth, to that extent exactly is it the result of the "demand" being drawn from some other things that have not been so reduced.

As an abstract principle, a "rule without exception," there can be no such thing as an increase of demand in a greater proportion than decrease of price, "so that, if one thousand are sold at 1s. many more than two thousand would be sold at 6d." Even "these facts," as far only as they themselves go, have not "established" such a rule; for the most important one among them, that of newspapers, is, we think we have shown, clearly an exception. And as to an increase capable of giving an increased revenue, it is utterly out of the question.

The foregoing article was written some time ago, and with a very indistinct view to publication. But the recent discussions of the subject, both here and in England, led the writer to revise it with that view; and in the course of fulfilling that intention, he met with the report of Lord Brougham's speech, on the new financial measures of Sir Robert Peel, which contains the following passages:

"Well, then, it was suggested that by lowering the duties of customs and excise, you would increase the consumption, and thus raise the revenue. All experience was against this resource for any immediate practical effect. Let not noble lords imagine that he was opposed to the lowering of the customs and excise. Quite the contrary. *He entertained no doubt that increased revenue would be the result, the certain consequence, of reduction in the duties of customs and excise*, and would remove many of the hardships which now pressed on the consumers; but his opinion was that such remedies would now come too late to cure the present difficulties. They would tell no doubt in the course of time, but that was not what was now wanted. He repeated, that such a remedy would come too late. There were abundant illustrations of what he thus stated. When the noble lord opposite (the earl of Ripon) was in office, about twenty years ago, he made the attempt to get an increased revenue by lowering the duties, and in that year the duties on wines were reduced 54 per cent. What became of the consumption? It was very much increased, but the revenue fell one third; and now after a lapse of twenty years, it had not come up to its former amount, but was at the present day one fifth less. The same might be said of tobacco. A reduction of the duty took place to the amount of 25 per cent, from 4s. to 3s. per pound. He would not say that the consumption was not increased by this. It was, to a considerable amount, but there was a considerable deficiency in the revenue, and at the present day it amounted to about one seventh of what it had been before the reduction of duties took place. A great reduction had also been made in sugar. The duty was lowered from 27s. to 24s. per cwt., or 11 per cent. The consumption rapidly increased. In fact, the reduction answered admirably for all purposes but those of revenue."

There is in these remarks so much of confirmation of our reasoning, that we almost doubt whether we have construed correctly those which his lordship made in 1825. Still, as the reader will perceive from the passage we have put in italics, there is enough of the doctrine reasserted by him to remove the doubt, and make the reasoning against it, if worth any thing at all, worth as much as it was before.

ART. VI.—OUR TRADE WITH ENGLAND.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:

IT is not often that we see the candid confession by an advocate of a protective tariff, that the corn laws of England are the very principles of political economy upon which we are so anxious that our own government should act; yet if I understand your correspondent, Mr. Colman, right, he not only admits, but proclaims this doctrine. It has been popular in this country, by men of all classes, to decry these laws as extremely injurious and wrong, operating peculiarly hard on the agriculture and commerce of this country, and inflicting evils of a more serious character on the lower classes, not only in England, but in all Europe. We have always had the opinion, and the article of your correspondent does much to establish its truth, that the corn laws of England were beneficial to the agriculture of this country. Our wheat, exported through the British provinces, does not come in competition with the wheat of Europe; but let the ports of England be opened, and our grain would be effectually excluded. In exchange for this, however, our manufacturers would find a market for low-priced cottons and woollens in those grain-growing countries, because they can be manufactured here cheaper than in any other part of the world. England is aware of our advantage in this respect, and has excluded our manufactures from her East Indies.

Let us examine the corn laws, their origin and effects, and we can perhaps judge more accurately of the propriety of adopting this feature of transatlantic policy. The superior strength and influence of the landholders has led England to adopt her present system. Its object, and to a considerable extent, its effect, is to exclude foreign grain, and increase the price. Land is enhanced in value; the laborer, unable to purchase or even rent, is driven from the soil to the mill. The influx of laborers in every branch of manufactures reduces the price of labor, while breadstuffs advance; and here commences the practical working of the system. The laborer, whose wages barely furnish the means of subsistence, though not always that, now finds that he has no time to devote to mental or moral culture. From a man, he becomes a mere machine without voluntary effort.

Those countries adapted to the culture of grain, unable to sell their products in England, are unable to buy her manufactures; and the blow aimed at foreign labor recoils on the head of the poor operative, first driven from the land to the mill, degraded from a *man* to a *menial*, and now again the victim of an unjust policy. The peasantry of Poland and Russia are anxious to buy the products of the English spindle and loom, at prices which will compensate labor, if England will but take their grain and feed her own starving and rebellious children.

Although England would find a successful rival in the United States in coarse goods, the market for finer fabrics would be almost exclusively her own. In proportion, however, as her policy becomes more liberal will her ability to manufacture cheap be increased. Such is the policy of the present administration. Sir Robert Peel's new tariff proposes a great reduction in the number of dutiable articles, as well as in the *ad valorem* rate. It requires no superior sagacity to discern that the true interests of England are to be greatly advanced by this measure. Buying cheap, under a low system of duties, all the materials of manufacturing, she will

be able to offer more facilities to other countries to buy her goods, and at the same time the products of the world will find a ready market in her manufacturing towns and cities. England will see her commerce on the increase, and the labor of her artisans and operatives will be more equitably rewarded.

But what is to be the effect on the United States? Continental wheat will take the place of American, and our agriculture will, to a small extent, be depressed. Our manufactures too, will suffer, as the ability of England to compete successfully with us will be increased.

Let me call attention to an extraordinary statement for an advocate of a protective tariff to put forth. In the first sentence of your correspondent's article, he says: "I have always been a warm advocate for what is called Home Industry, holding that, in the main, political economy does not essentially differ from domestic economy; and believing that a family, to be really prosperous and independent, must *from within itself and from its own resources* supply its own wants." No man will question this proposition as a *theory*, yet the protectionists, if we understand their policy, *act* in direct opposition to it. If a farmer raise wheat and buy his cloth with it, he as certainly supplies this want *from his own resources* as if he manufactured the cloth in his own dwelling. This is just what the advocates of free trade propose: to produce every thing for which our soil, climate, and condition of the people are suited, and exchange our surplus for those articles which we cannot produce at all, or only at an exorbitant rate; thus from within ourselves and from our own resources supplying our wants. On the other hand, it is proposed that we produce directly, not by an exchange of products, every article necessary or convenient. We have no idea that any person in his senses proposes to carry this policy to its extreme, though the time is not long past when there were such; yet we will trace it there, that its true character may be exposed. Unnecessary expense would be incurred, and abortive attempts made to grow the plant of China by the waters of the St. Croix and Kennebec; human art and ingenuity would in vain seek to raise coffee on the banks of the Mohawk and Hudson; woollen and cotton mills, driven by steam, would spring up on the prairies of the west, while the flocks of the mountains would find unnatural pasturage on the savannahs of the south; the hard and unfruitful maple would take the place of the copious cane; the mulberry, orange, and lemon would be found in the green-houses of St. Petersburg; while the navy of England would be supplied with timber from artificial forests. This policy when applied to families is even more pernicious. No scheme can be more Quixotic than one which would lead every family to confine itself to those articles which were produced by its own members. Industry asks nothing, and surely can receive nothing beneficial, at the hand of legislation. Labor desires to be let alone. Labor is the propelling power in society, not the propelled; hence the fruitlessness of every attempt to render it the servant of law.

Your correspondent shows that in 1840, our exports to England exceeded the imports from that country by $25,034,422, and supports the doctrine that a high tariff will diminish our imports and increase our exports. Now the tariff of England in 1840 was higher than our own, yet the balance of trade was against her. If Mr. Colman were correct, England ought to have exported great and imported small quantities of the products of labor.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

DIGEST OF RECENT ENGLISH CASES.

BILL OF EXCHANGE.—NOTICE OF DISHONOR.

At Law.—The following were the notices of non-payment of six bills of exchange. 1st. "Sir—A bill for £29 17*s.* 3*d.*, drawn by Ward on Hunt, due yesterday, is unpaid, and I am sorry to say, the person at whose house it is made payable, don't speak very favorably of the acceptor's punctuality. I should like to see you upon it to-day." 2d. "Mr. Maine: Sir—This is to give you notice, that a bill drawn by you, and accepted by Josias Bateman, for £47 16*s.* 9*d.*, due July 19, 1835, is unpaid, and lies due at Mr. John Furze's, 65 Fleet-street." 3d. "Sir—William Howard's acceptance for £21 4*s.* 4*d.*, due on Saturday, is unpaid. He has promised to pay it in a week or ten days. I shall be glad to see you upon it as early as possible." 4th. "Sir—This is to give you notice, that a bill for £176 15*s.* 6*d.*, drawn by Samuel Maine, and accepted by George Clisby, dated May 7th, 1835, at four months, lies due and unpaid at my house." 5th. "P. Johnson, Esq.: Sir—This is to give you notice that a bill for £20 17*s.* 7*d.*, drawn by Samuel Maine, accepted by Richard Jones, dated May 21, 1835, at four months, lies due and unpaid at my house." 6th. "P. Johnson, Esq.: Sir—This is to give you notice, that a bill for £148 10*s.*, drawn by Samuel Maine, and accepted by George Parker, dated May 22, 1835, lies due and unpaid at my house."

Held, not sufficient notices of dishonor.

MEMORANDUM IN WRITING.—PRINCIPAL AND AGENT.

At Law.—The traveller of the plaintiffs sold the defendants 150 mats of sugar, on account of the plaintiffs. At the time of the sale, one of the defendants wrote the following entry in their book, which the plaintiffs' traveller, on being requested so to do, then signed—viz, "Of North, Simpson, Graham, & Co., 150 mats Ma. sugar, a 71-6 as sample, per sea, Fenning's wharf. First and second ship. (Signed,) Joseph Dyson." The sugar was sent to the wharf, and invoices transmitted to the defendants. Whilst at the wharf, the sugar was destroyed by fire. Dyson had, upon many previous occasions, sold sugars for the plaintiffs to the defendants on credit, upon which occasions similar sale notes had been signed by him, and these contracts the defendants had always performed, but—

Held, that the entry above mentioned, was not a sufficient memorandum in writing within the Statute of Frauds, requiring contracts to be in writing, to bind the defendants, Dyson not being *their* agent for that purpose.

ARBITRATION.—SETTING ASIDE AWARD.—UMPIRE.—REFUSAL TO HEAR WITNESSES.—WAIVER.

At Law.—If an umpire either refuse to rehear the evidence already given before the arbitrators, or to hear further evidence, the award may be set aside.

And it is no waiver of the objection that the party did not insist on it at the time he attended to hear what award the arbitrators had made.

GOODS SOLD AND DELIVERED.

At Law.—The defendant directed the plaintiff to make a coat for him. He afterwards wrote to say, he should have no occasion for it, and directed the plaintiff to dispose of it for him. Plaintiff accordingly sold the coat, and apprised the defendant of his so doing.

Held, upon these facts, that an action was maintainable for goods *sold and delivered* to the defendant.

CONTRACT.—ACCEPTANCE AND DELIVERY.

At Law.—The defendant having purchased goods under a verbal agreement, to be

paid for on delivery, went to the plaintiff's warehouse, where the goods were, and directed the mark on one of the packages to be altered from "No. 1," to "No. 12," and the goods to be sent to St. Catherine's Docks. The mark was altered accordingly. The defendant having, on the following day, refused to pay for the goods, the present action was immediately commenced, subsequently to which the defendant wrote in the plaintiff's books, under entry of the goods ordered, the words, "Receive the above, J. B."

Held, that there was no evidence of a delivery and acceptance of the goods within the Statute of Frauds, and that the receipt, having been given after action brought, did not constitute an acceptance.

STATUTE OF LIMITATIONS.—CONSTRUCTION OF AGREEMENT.—DEMAND.

At Law.—The defendant, being indebted to the plaintiff's intestate, upon two bills of exchange, which were overdue, gave the following written promise in 1803: "I hereby debar myself of all future plea of the Statute of Limitations, in case of my being sued for the recovery of the amounts of the said bills, and of the interest accruing thereon, at the time of my being so sued; and I hereby promise to pay them, separately or conjointly, with the full amount of legal interest on each and both of them, whenever my circumstances may enable me so to do and I may be called upon for that purpose." An action was brought upon this agreement in 1838, and the issue was, whether a right of action accrued under the agreement within six years? It appeared that the defendant became of ability to pay in 1825, but there was no evidence to show that the plaintiff's intestate was aware of the ability until 1838, in the month of November of which year he demanded payment.

Held, first, that no demand was necessary beyond the bringing of an action; and, secondly, that the action having been brought after the expiration of six years from the period of the defendant having become of ability to pay, of which the plaintiff was bound to have informed himself, he was not entitled to recover.

CONTRACT.—CONSIDERATION.—PROMISE TO PAY EXTRA WAGES TO A SERVANT OF THE GOVERNMENT.

At Law.—The plaintiff, who was a cook on board a merchant ship, was engaged by the defendant to serve in that capacity on board a man-of-war, of which the defendant was captain, and extra wages, in addition to the ordinary pay, were promised him. The plaintiff went on board the defendant's ship, and was rated in the usual way, and acted as cook, receiving pay as a seaman.

Held, that there was a good consideration for the promise of the defendant to pay the extra wages, and that an action might be maintained by him, against the defendant, in respect of them.

HORSE RACE.—STEEPLE CHASE.—WAGER.

At Law.—"B. bets A. £100 to £25 *p. p.* Mr. R.'s brown mare beats A.'s mare Matilda, four miles across a country, thirteen stone each."

Held, a legal wager; and that A.'s mare having beat Mr. R.'s, A. was entitled to recover the £100 in an action of *assumpsit*.

CARRIER.—STOPPAGE IN TRANSITU.—BANKRUPTCY.—TAKING POSSESSION.—EVIDENCE.—AUTHORITY.—CONFIRMATION.

At Law.—B., a merchant at Liverpool, ordered a cargo of timber to be sent from Quebec, in a vessel belonging to and chartered by a shipowner at Montrose. The timber was to be delivered at a port in Lancashire. The price was not paid; and before the arrival of the vessel in England, B. became a bankrupt. On the 18th of July, before the arrival of the vessel, the defendants, who were the correspondents in this country of the consignor, sent to the shipowner a notice of stoppage *in transitu*, whereupon the ship-

owner sent a letter to await the arrival of the captain, directing him to deliver the cargo to the defendants. The vessel arrived in port on the 8th of August, on which day, before the captain had received his owner's letter, the agent of the assignees went on board, and told the captain he had come to take possession of the cargo. He went into the cabin, into which the ends of the timber projected, and saw and touched the timber. When the agent first stated that he came to take possession, the captain made no reply, but subsequently, at the interview, told him that he would deliver him the cargo when he was satisfied about his freight, but did not then consent to deliver immediate possession, or to waive his lien for the freight. They then went on shore together. Shortly afterwards the defendants' clerk came on board, and served a notice of stoppage *in transitu* upon the mate, who had charge of the cargo; and a few days afterwards received possession of the cargo from the captain.

Before the consignor knew of the bankruptcy of the consignee, he had sent three letters to the manager of a bank in Liverpool, enclosing bills drawn by himself upon certain parties, and he referred to the defendants as persons who would settle any irregularity that might occur respecting the acceptances. These letters were communicated to the defendants and assented to by them. Another letter to the same party enclosed a bill drawn upon the consignee for the price of the timber in question.

Held, first, that the letters were admissible in evidence, and gave the defendants an authority to stop the cargo *in transitu*.

A notice of stoppage *in transitu*, to be good, must be given either to the servant, who has the custody of the goods, or to the principal; and in the latter case it must be given at such a time, and under such circumstances, as that the principal, by the exercise of reasonable diligence, may communicate it to his servant in time to prevent the delivery of the goods to the consignee.

Held, therefore, secondly, that in the present case the notice to the shipowner did not amount to a stoppage *in transitu*.

Held, also, that there was no actual possession of the goods by the assignees; and as there was no contract by the captain to hold the goods as their agent, the circumstances did not amount to a *constructive* possession of the goods by them.

Whether the act of marking or taking samples, or the like, without any removal from the possession of the carrier, although done with the intention of taking possession, will amount to a *constructive* possession, unless accompanied by circumstances denoting that the carrier was intended to keep, and assented to keep the goods as an agent—*Quære?*

The consignor, *before* the stoppage *in transitu*, wrote a letter to the defendants, in which he assumes that they *had* stopped the cargo. This letter did not reach the defendants until *after* the stoppage.

Quære—whether it gave authority to them to stop the cargo at the *time* of the stoppage, or amounted to a valid *confirmation* of that act?

BILL OF EXCHANGE.—IRREVOCABLE APPROPRIATION.—EQUITABLE ASSIGNMENT.—BANKRUPTCY.

At Law.—The plaintiff having sold goods to B., sent them to the defendant, as B.'s agent, who consigned them to his partners abroad for sale. The plaintiff being the holder of B.'s acceptances not then due, it was agreed, between him and B., and the defendant, that B. should write and deliver to the defendant the following letter;—"Mr. R. G. W., (the plaintiff,) holding my acceptances for £1,100, or thereabouts, for goods consigned by him on my account, to your firms at Rio and Bahia, I hereby authorize and direct you, from and out of any remittances that you may receive against nett proceeds of any consignments made by me to either of your above firms, subsequent to the 1st of May last, to pay such acceptances when and as they become due or afterwards, if previously to the receipt of such nett proceeds of such consignments, &c., the bills are not

honored by me. Signed, A. Bull." This letter was delivered to the defendant, and the terms of it were assented to by him. B. afterwards became a bankrupt, and the defendant having received the proceeds of the goods, refused to pay them to the plaintiff, but handed them over to the assignees of B.

Held, that this was an appropriation irrevocable except by consent of all parties, the existence of the debt, although not due, being a good consideration to B.; and that the defendant having bound himself to appropriate the goods according to the direction of the owner, could not withhold them from the plaintiff.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

[Brought Down to June 15.]

By a singular inadvertence in our May number, in giving a list of banks which had stopped payment from January, 1842, up to that time, we inserted the Planters' Bank, Georgia, instead of the Planters' & Mechanics' Bank. The former institution is situated at Savannah, and is a sound and solvent bank; while the latter, located at Columbus, has been forced to yield to the pressure as we stated.

The leading features of financial and commercial affairs as indicated in our former numbers had not varied in their general character down to the middle of June, but some progress had been made towards bringing about a more sound state of the currency, and reducing exchanges to a greater degree of uniformity than has been experienced in many years. We stated in our last number that preparations were on foot for resumption at New Orleans. Soon after that number went to press, seven of the banks of New Orleans returned to specie payments, although the law did not require it of them until December next. There are ten banks in New Orleans; and three of them, the Citizens', Consolidated, and State banks, being opposed to resumption, resisted the movement for some days after it was entered into by the other institutions. The force of public opinion was, however, such as to oblige them to follow in the movement, or submit to discredit. The following was the aggregate condition of these banks immediately prior to their resumption:—

Cash Assets and Liabilities of the New Orleans Banks, April 30.

	Liabilities.	*Cash Assets.*	*Def. Assets.*	*Ex. Assets.*
City Bank,	$1,460,960	$814,972	$645,988	—
Louisiana Bank,	296,372	605,634	—	$309,261
Canal and Banking Co...	451,376	162,785	288,590	—
Carrolton Bank,	150,745	60,263	90,482	—
Commercial Bank,	1,029,311	555,562	472,748	—
M. & Traders' Bank,	358,074	364,870	—	6,796
Union Bank,	1,509,284	1,214,028	295,256	—
	5,256,126	3,778,119	1,794,366	
	Non-Resuming Banks.			
Citizens',	2,277,715	1,715,315	561,399	—
Consolidated,	1,283,451	785,328	498,022	—
State Bank,	1,220,963	932,328	288,634	—
	4,782,129	3,432,971	1,351,057	
Total,	$10,038,255	$7,211,090	3,145,423	

The resumption effected under these circumstances was of but short duration. It continued sixteen days under a constant effort of the institutions to realize their assets, and to meet the unremitting demand for specie in payment of their outstanding obligations. At the close of the month of May the banks again made their report, which was followed by an immediate panic on the part of the public. This caused a run which in

three days resulted in a resuspension of six of the banks. The leading features of all the banks at the two periods were as follows:—

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF NEW ORLEANS, APRIL 30, AND MAY 28, 1842.

Assets.	*April* 30.	*May* 28.	*Increase.*	*Decrease.*
Capital of Branches,.....	$5,775,000	$5,775,000	.....	.....
Real Estate,.....	2,508,224	2,557,037	$44,813	.....
Public Improvements,.....	3,081,198	3,088,495	7,297	.....
Loans on Stock,.....	11,015,726	11,008,647	.....	$7,079
Loans on Mortgages, &c.	5,694,966	7,944,907	2,249,941	.....
Discounts,.....	10,948,500	8,314,885	.....	2,633,615
Other Assets,.....	3,175,253	3,178,905	3,652	.....
Protested Paper,.....	5,036,683	5,387,451	350,768	.....
Cash Assets.				
Specie,.....	2,263,950	1,741,526	.....	522,424
Loans on Deposits,.....	2,115,407	1,894,944	.....	220,463
Exchange,.....	2,028,722	1,976,519	.....	52,203
Other Assets,.....	617,904	334,212	.....	283,692
TOTAL, Assets,.....	$54,261,539	$53,198,528		
Liabilities.				
Capital,.....	$35,447,578	$35,447,578	.....	.....
Circulation,.....	3,707,719	3,007,340	.....	700,379
Deposits,.....	4,738,153	4,177,867	.....	560,286
Exchange,.....	816,737	836,127	19,390	.....
Other Cash Liabilities,....	690,539	398,016	.....	292,523
" "	1,431,627	1,793,611	361,984	.....
TOTAL, Liabilities,...	$46,832,333	$45,660,539		

This return gives us the fact that the banks were called upon in the short space of thirty days to pay $1,553,188, to do which they diminished their available assets 1,078,782. This left them in a very weak condition to sustain the run which followed. In the same time, it appears that $350,000 of their discounts came under protest, which was nearly all that fell due. In the thirty days which elapsed prior to the 30th of April, the cash liabilities were diminished $226,207 only, and during the same period, the specie increased $33,000. The sudden panic which set in and existed throughout April may therefore fairly be ascribed to the bickerings between the banks themselves. The want of confidence which they exhibited in each other shook the confidence of the public, and produced the disastrous results that we have seen.

We have gone thus minutely into the occurrences in New Orleans because we look upon the events which transpired there as of vast importance to the commercial world, New Orleans being the great head-quarters of the cotton market, a staple that forms two thirds of the whole exports of the United States. The effect of the failure in New Orleans must be to retard a restoration of a sound currency throughout the western states. The resumption at New Orleans was to have been followed by a similar movement along the whole valley of the Mississippi. Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Kentucky resumed on the 15th of June, as required by the laws of the respective states. The banks of Tennessee were required to resume within twenty days after those of Kentucky and Louisiana, and have done so. The law of the latter requires the banks to resume on the first Monday of December, 1842, under penalty of forfeiture; and the probability now is that they will hesitate in doing so. The following is a table of the leading features of those institutions that have resumed, at the period of their latest returns:—

WESTERN AND SOUTHWESTERN BANKS WHICH PAID SPECIE ON THE 15TH OF JUNE.

Banks.	*Date.*	*Loans.*	*Specie.*	*Circulation.*	*Deposits.*
State Bank of Indiana,.....	Oct., 1841,	$3,708,158	$1,127,518	$2,960,414	$251,986
Nor. Bank of Kentucky,.....	Jan., 1842,	3,788,998	609,309	1,523,271	612,435
Bank of Louisville,.....	Jan., 1842,	1,309,702	160,414	337,448	85,613

Banks.	*Date.*	*Loans.*	*Specie.*	*Circulation.*	*Deposits.*
Bank of Kentucky,.....	Jan., 1842,	4,232,147	669,247	1,614,827	363,273
Bank of Missouri,.....	Jan., 1842,	1,500,000	228,814	305,850	413,347
Banks of Ohio,.....	Mar., 1842,	4,607,213	539,993	889,257	1,341,368
Bank of Illinois,.....	Feb., 1842,	1,799,425	421,151	1,310,492	100,513
Bank of Cape Fear, N. C....	Jan., 1842,	1,769,831	565,518	962,197	217,209
Bank of Louisiana,.....		3,037,502	276,605	133,870	329,700
City Bank,.....		1,841,537	236,907	495,795	732,530
Mechanics' & Traders' Bank,.....		1,164,883	130,698	198,885	200,773
Union Bank,.....		5,826,204	400,306	536,130	719,528
TOTAL,.....		$34,585,600	$5,146,480	11,268,436	$5,368,275

The following were the leading features of the New Orleans banks and other southern banks that remain suspended:—

SUSPENDED SOUTHERN BANKS.

Banks.	*Loans.*	*Specie.*	*Circulation.*	*Deposits.*
Canal & Banking Company,..	$1,533,122	$78,184	$239,555	$31,716
Carrolton R. R. & Bank'g Co.	469,456	29,638	35,270	48,622
Citizens' Bank,.....	7,903,836	112,544	294,245	878,231
Commercial Bank,.....	1,145,124	79,087	210,545	87,011
Consolidated Association,.....	1,372,112	170,025	419,390	498,241
Louisiana State Bank,.....	1,974,651	227,527	387,645	651,511
Com. Bank, Natchez, Miss....	3,904,074	54,954	.....	13,611
Planters' Bank, Natchez, Miss.	2,615,524	9,021	501,823	85,136
Banks of Virginia,.....	15,925,088	2,462,155	7,753,300	2,638,882
Bank of Mobile,.....	1,705,716	89,505	25,137	1,057,439
Planters' and Mer. of Mobile,	1,648,803	101,126	48,735	690,412
State Bk. of Ala. and br'ches,	12,000,000	1,654,476	7,026,057	874,484
TOTAL,.....	$52,197,506	$5,066,247	$16,997,712	$7,575,390

The effect which resumption had upon the exchanges down to the moment of the New Orleans explosion is clearly distinguishable in the following table of rates:—

RATES OF DOMESTIC BILLS AT NEW YORK SINCE THE RESUMPTION IN PHILADELPHIA IN MARCH, 1842.

Places.	*February.*	*May* 1.	*May* 15.	*May* 30.	*June* 15.
Boston,.....	¼ a ⅜	¼ a ⅜	¼ a ⅜	par a ¼	par a ¼
Philadelphia,.....	7 a 8¼	par a ⅛ d.	par a ⅛	⅛ a ¼	par a ⅛
Baltimore,.....	2 a 3	⅛ a ¼	⅛ a ¼	⅛ a ¼	par a ¼
Richmond,.....	9 a 12½	7¼ a 7½	7¼ a 7½	2½ a 3	2½ a 2¾
North Carolina,..	5¼ a 5½	5½ a 5¾	3 a 3¼	3¼ a 3½	3 a 3¼
Savannah,.....	2½ a 3	2¼ a 2½	a 2	1¼ a 2	1¼ a 2
Charleston,.....	1½ a 1¾	1½ a 1¾	1½ a 1¾	1½ a 1¾	1¼ a 1½
Mobile,.....	12½ a 13	19 a 20	15 a 16	29 a 30	26 a 26½
New Orleans,....	6½ a 7	6¾ a 7	a 6½	1 a 2	1¼ a 1½
Louisville,.....	9½ a 10	5 a 6	4 a 5	3½ a 4	3 a 3½
Nashville,.....	14 a 14½	17 a 18	17 a 18	12½ a 15	10 a 11
St. Louis,.....	13 a 14	6 a	6 a	4 a 5	7 a 8
Cincinnati,.....	15 a 16	8 a 10	8 a 9	4 a 5	3½ a 4
Indiana,.....	16 a 17	a 10	a 16	8 a 9	8 a 9
Illinois,.....	17 a 18	.....	a 31	7 a 9	7 a 8

On every point where resumption had been enforced the exchanges were reduced to very near their natural level, which is the cost of transportation of the precious metals, and which is always against the point to which payment is to be made. This reduction in the price of exchanges has, however, been attended with a pressure that has borne with great severity upon the Atlantic dealers, and has tended to diminish the spring business. The banks preparing to resume have been unable to discount the usual amount of business paper; and although exchange has been freely offered on New York,

at all the points, the means of purchase have been diminished by the severe curtailment of the accustomed facilities. The consequence has been that the city merchants have been deprived of their remittances, and the failures anticipated in our May number have to a great extent been realized, and within a short time some unexpected stoppages among the grocers have transpired. The extent to which this reduction of the western currency has taken place may be indicated in the following comparative statement of the banks of Cincinnati, June 1, 1841, and June, 1842:—

BANKS OF CINCINNATI, JUNE, 1841, AND JUNE, 1842.

		June, 1841.		*June*, 1842.	
	Capital.	*Loans.*	*Circulation.*	*Loans.*	*Circulation.*
Lafayette Bank,...	$1,000,000	$1,650,000	$523,000	$980,000	$57,000
Franklin,.....	1,000,000	1,585,000	229,400	1,095,000	25,400
Ohio Life & Trust,	634,730	779,700	31,000	632,500	89,000
Commercial Bank,	500,000	1,902,077	650,024	1,017,836	122,820
TOTAL,.....	$3,134,730	$5,916,777	$1,433,424	$3,725,336	$294,220
		Reduction,.....		2,191,441	1,139,204

Notwithstanding this state of things in the interior, causing much embarrassment among the dealers who depended upon receiving their accustomed remittance, money with the banks and capitalists has been abundant in the city, arising from the fact that the call for money for mercantile purposes has by no means kept pace with the receipts of the banks. This has produced an increased inquiry for stocks for investment, and has continued that upward tendency in values which we noticed in our last. We then stated that the new United States loan had not been taken. Since then, however, an arrangement has been entered into by the Secretary of the Treasury with certain broker houses, by which money was obtained upon a portion of the $3,500,000 of stock offered. The price did not transpire, but some sales of the stock were subsequently made in the market at par. The New York seven per cent stock commands a premium of 2½ per cent. There is yet, however, no appearance of any movement on the part of the delinquent states to restore their credit; on the contrary, the difficulties seem to increase around them. The state of Virginia did not succeed in negotiating a loan of $250,000 that was appropriated to the payment of the July interest on the state debt, and fears are entertained on that account. The interest was, however, fully provided for. An extra session of the Pennsylvania legislature has been convened to take into consideration the means of meeting the payment of the interest due on the debt of that state in August. As yet no means whatever have been provided, and the governor, in his message, has called the attention of the legislature to the subject in an energetic manner. He represents that the people of Pennsylvania, who number 1,700,000, now pay town and county taxes amounting in the aggregate to $4,000,000, of which but $700,000 comes into the state treasury. The interest on the state debt is about $2,000,000, and a deficiency in the current expenses of the government also exists. To meet these, the present imposts must be nearly doubled, and the taxes must be promptly levied. This state of affairs places the credit of Pennsylvania in a very critical condition. The state of the banks in New Orleans will also have a great influence upon the credit of that state. The public debt of Louisiana consists almost altogether of bonds issued on the faith of the state to different banks, which bonds have been sold in Europe, and the proceeds constitute the capitals of the banks, and is by them loaned out to the stockholders on mortgages of their landed property. The interest received for the loan of the stock is supposed sufficient to pay the interest on the bonds sold abroad, and to form a sinking fund for their ultimate redemption. The issues have been as follows:—

LOUISIANA STATE DEBT.

Bonds Issued.	*Rate of Interest.*	*Redeemable.*	*Amount.*
Bank of Louisiana,.....	5 per cent.	1844–49	$1,200,000
Consolidated Association,....	5 "	1843–48	2,382,000
Mechanics' & Traders',.....	5 "	1853	150,000
Union Bank,.....	5 "	1844–47–50–52	7,000,000
Citizens' Bank,.....	5 "	1850–9–68–77–86	7,088,889
Issues not negotiated,.....	.....	.....	3,000,000
TOTAL,.....			$20,820,889

These bonds are guarantied by cotton lands supposed to be worth $25,400,000. It has long been the opinion of many of the shrewdest practical financiers of that section of the country that the expenses attending the borrowing of money, wherewith to pursue the banking business, were greater than the profits of planting would warrant. The facts now developing seem to warrant that conclusion. The amount of interest due in Europe for money borrowed for various purposes in this country has been computed at $11,000,000 annually. This is full ten per cent of the whole exports of domestic produce, and must absorb all the profits of those exports. Many of the states have declared their inability to continue those payments, but it is to be hoped that, with the removal of those general causes of depression which have of late years overshadowed the whole commercial world, such an alleviation of business may take place in this country as will enable its citizens to redeem their honor.

The great question of national interest now pending before congress is the adjustment of the tariff on such a footing as shall yield a revenue sufficient for all the purposes of government, and at the same time impose the least burdens upon commerce. For the last few years it has been apparent that the customs did not yield a revenue sufficient even for an economical administration of the government. This deficiency has been supposed to be temporary in its nature, and has been supplied by expedients. At the close of the present month, however, the final reduction in duties as provided by the compromise tariff goes into effect, when a general duty of twenty per cent is to be levied upon all articles. The reduction under the compromise act has been biennial, commencing in 1834. The following table will illustrate its operation :—

BIENNIAL REDUCTION OF DUTIES UNDER THE COMPROMISE ACT.

Years ending Dec. 31.	*Reduction.*	25 *per c.*	30 *per c.*	35 *per c.*	40 *per c.*	50 *per c.*
1834–35	.1	24½	29	33½	38	47
1836–37	.2	24	28	32	36	44
1838–39	.3	23½	27	30½	34	41
1840–41	.4	23	26	29	32	38
1842—June 30,	.7	21	23	24	26	29
After 30th June,	under	20	20	20	20	20

The manner of reduction is by tenths of the difference between twenty per cent and the original duty. Thus, if the duty was fifty per cent, the difference between that and twenty per cent would be 30, one tenth of which is .3, which, deducted from 50, gives forty-seven per cent as the duty for 1834–5; and so on, until, after June, the reduction becomes complete. Three propositions have been made to increase the revenues:—one by the secretary of the treasury; one by the committee of ways and means; and one by the committee on manufactures. All of these plans propose duties to average nearly thirty-five per cent instead of twenty. This is to restore the rates of 1834, before any reduction took place. While this is going on on this side of the water, in England arrangements have been made to reduce the duties levied there on imported goods, particularly on American produce. These contemporaneous movements will, doubtless, have a great effect upon the trade between the two countries. In order to form some estimate of the change, we have compiled the following table, showing the trade between

the United States and Great Britain for several years, with the rates of duty heretofore existing, and those proposed to be levied in both countries :—

COMMERCE BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES.

IMPORTS FROM ENGLAND.

						Tariff of '34.	Duties in '40.	Proposed Tariff.
Free of Duty.	1834.	1836.	1837.	1839.	1840.			
Books,.....	30,160	26,130	—	32,948	34,490	free	free	free
Spelter,.....	122	41,606	17,683	7,267	4,891	"	"	"
Furs, &c....	208,834	465,842	230,503	518,989	165,740	"	"	5 p. c.
Tin, pigs,...	52,836	37,413	148,966	235,758	79,308	"	"	1 "
" plates,	—	1,403,101	776,711	1,044,368	878,968	"	"	2½ "
Copper, pigs	4,130	344,317	188,578	109,456	99,672	"	"	free
" plates,	433,181	1,004,177	610,310	615,351	410,649	"	"	"
Gold,.....	1,997,260	2,317,605	75,912	465,047	676,200	"	"	"
Silver,.....	3,708,000	8,675	44,389	967,130	127,106	"	"	"
Spices,.....	90,000	71,448	43,130	114,220	42,000	"	"	30 p c
Silks,.....	—	3,795,001	1,474,907	3,314,299	1,343,818	"	"	30 "
" & w'sted	—	784,313	220,897	441,040	341,452	"	"	30 "
Camlet,.....	—	120,869	15,753	29,150	5,968	"	"	20 "
Worsted,....	—	5,663,555	2,687,002	4,326,208	1,336,628	"	"	30 "
Linens,.....	—	6,556,498	3,816,570	3,589,555	3,493,001	"	"	25 "
Burlaps,.....	—	364,920	283,791	397,156	245,029	"	"	25 "
Sheetings,...	—	252,021	194,553	312,485	153,832	"	"	25 "
Wool,.....	—	58,221	24,067	16,417	12,276	"	"	20 "
Quicksilver,	—	12,281	18,460	244,672	54,315	"	"	15 "
O'r Articles,	9,875,565	1,837,240	1,254,426	2,445,370	1,103,516	–	–	—
TOTAL,								
Free,...	16,600,150	25,365,715	12,240,201	21,227,215	10,448,133			
Ad Valorem.								
Cloths,.....	4,198,133	8,569,225	2,829,987	6,707,994	4,490,830	50	38	40 p c
Merino,.....	—	18,519	2,223	224,051	112,780	50	38	40 "
Blankets,...	913,701	2,177,700	834,177	1,246,578	399,438	25	23	25 "
Hosiery,....	312,775	674,031	120,422	818,917	415,745	25	23	25 "
Oth.Wool,..	193,862	667,119	86,443	508,756	214,581	50	38	40 "
Worsted,...	665,804	198,727	157,480	318,164	—	20	20	30 "
Dy. Cotton,	5,531,964	9,882,020	5,546,722	7,481,298	3,107,835	25	23	25 "
White,.....	1,560,299	2,252,947	1,103,483	1,875,996	767,875	25	23	25 "
Hosiery,....	394,777	634,942	527,689	301,293	261,334	25	23	25 "
Yarn,.....	366,533	526,162	376,968	766,587	373,774	25	23	18¾"
Oth. Cotton,	339,151	796,406	573,313	626,915	250,179	25	23	25 "
Sew'g Silk,	17,462	131,763	800,090	196,470	30,705	40	32	44 "
Lace,.....	846,232	1,240,641	602,655	949,669	291,128	12½	12½	25 "
Art. of Flax,	201,401	903,905	587,600	838,454	308,542	25	23	25 "
" Hemp,	88,892	66,132	57,023	152,056	123,063	25	23	25 "
Straw Hats,	139,639	285,796	215,510	471,776	157,658	30	26	30 "
Art. of Iron,	3,877,000	6,567,530	5,100,809	5,122,170	2,445,318	25	23	30 "
" Copper,	20,950	109,313	90,536	62,830	31,758	25	23	30 "
" Brass,..	235,613	426,672	339,972	233,280	135,632	25	23	30 "
" Tin,....	90,344	46,870	36,177	47,840	25,742	25	23	30 "
" Pewter,	13,370	63,524	42,337	59,558	23,164	25	23	30 "
" Lead,...	1,141	4,310	6,694	1,057	901	15	15	30 "
" Wood,.	19,130	60,376	62,313	57,221	75,711	25	23	30 "
" L'ather,	130,676	274,530	165,366	327,810	109,561	30	26	30 "
" Gold, &c.	89,000	362,889	281,435	179,977	118,296	12½	12½	07½"
Watches,...	414,085	735,178	609,117	373,083	180,258	12½	12½	12½"
Glassware,.	943,535	82,340	55,130	74,280	41,574	20	20	25 "
China,.....	76,964	81,216	103,076	132,368	77,005	20	20	25 "
E'rth'nw're,	1,365,380	2,410,190	1,534,049	2,188,027	1,811,811	25	—	— "
Wares, &c.	200,000	706,310	485,687	316,411	141,008	25	23	10 "
Saddlery,...	336,967	598,000	411,625	389,931	200,143	10	10	25 "

Ad Valorem, continued.	1834.	1836.	1837.	1839.	1840.	Tariff of '34.	Duties in '40.	Proposed Tariff.
Slates,.....	30,188	140,120	54,624	73,692	66,687	15	23	25 "
O'r Articles,	1,200,000	2,190,240	1,134,131	2,186,000	836,000	—	—	—
Total, Ad Valorem,	24,377,110	43,569,774	23,894,498	35,771,700	17,576,245			
Specific.								
Flannels,...	189,848	292,460	66,946	159,470	59,067	16	12	14 p c.
Baizes,.....	40,056	168,163	27,127	181,957	50,708	16	14	14 "
Brus.c'rp'ts,	195,644	512,248	367,827	211,250	245,715	63	40	60 "
Ingrain do..	198,695	447,550	251,881	195,371	91,577	35	28	35 "
Floorcloths,	15,426	25,171	27,250	30,130	19,558	43	35½	35 "
Oilcloths,...	1,843	7,239	4,358	7,188	1,833	12½	12½	10 "
Cott. Bag'g,	230,425	1,638,319	405,662	195,855	282,419	03½	03½	05 "
Wine,.....	194,000	263,340	167,120	71,130	49,900	12½	12½	60 "
Spirits,.....	89,000	161,120	109,103	159,640	71,281	60	37	65 "
Ale, &c.....	100,000	176,453	142,300	238,203	134,000	20	20	20 "
Linseed Oil,	212,000	242,185	225,851	600,458	169,766	25	18	25 "
Other Oil,...	3,380	9,173	1,551	69,264	5,223	25	18	40 "
Cheese,.....	3,247	4,838	4,991	6,470	5,788	09	07	06 "
Gunp'wder,	5,849	29,644	11,815	5,517	3,859	08	07½	08 "
Bristles, ...	382	78,784	15,822	68,587	22,628	03	03	04 "
Ochre,.....	14,130	15,936	16,592	15,185	28,651	01	01	— "
Whit. Lead,	57,085	55,736	46,275	48,222	40,624	05	03½	04 "
Twine,.....	101,370	136,376	106,000	125,964	108,482	05	05	06 "
Nails,.....	51,406	103,679	65,267	140,329	62,237	05	04	05 "
Ch'n Cables,	114,878	132,336	109,913	138,433	85,613	03	03	03 "
Anc.& Anv.	75,204	110,278	91,163	86,751	30,600	02	01⅝	02½"
Castings,....	142,378	66,300	78,980	65,500	93,467	01½	01	01½"
Round Iron,	10,004	22,872	21,279	29,822	46,007	03	02¾	03 "
Sheet "	96,464	207,738	282,152	272,888	197,816	03	02¾	03 "
Pig "	263,934	269,618	411,150	267,891	105,052	50	39	50 "
Bar "	1,203,517	2,270,937	2,527,846	3,352,674	1,763,999	150	140	150 "
Steel,.....	453,214	598,840	743,297	490,108	454,382	150	150	200 "
Hemp,.....	22,214	191,529	9,435	92,374	18,525	200	200	200 "
Salt,.....	576,669	508,389	613,848	651,259	738,471	10	07½	06 "
Coal,.....	108,700	92,700	150,233	162,005	226,208	06	04½	06½"
Potatoes,...	10,600	22,768	11,800	51,134	9,526	10	10	06 "
Books,.....	130,000	75,340	155,000	237,000	129,000	26	23	26 "
Wheat,.....	—	152,125	984,334	—	—	25	23	25 "
Glass ,.....	90,336	208,781	106,000	102,000	67,000	200	168	300 "
O'r Articles,	322,000	210,000	336,000	341,000	100,000	—	—	— "
Total, Specific,..	6,505,547	9,710,479	8,751,244	8,972,556	5,334,861			
Ad Val.	24,337,110	43,569,774	23,894,498	35,771,700	17,674,030			
Free,...	16,600,150	25,365,715	12,240,201	21,227,215	10,670,802			
Grand Total,...	47,242,807	78,645,968	44,885,943	65,971,471	33,679,693			
In Am. ves.	42,467,326	72,602,500	40,813,882	59,339,422	20,240,078			
In For. do.	4,775,481	5,953,458	4,073,061	6,625,166	4,497,621			
Vessels arr.	908	931	828	878	1,094			
Tonnage,...	344,523	381,092	405,722	412,544	582,424			

Exports of Domestic Produce to England in 1839 and 1840, with the Alteration in Duty.

Articles.	1839.	1840.	*Present Duty.* £	s.	d.	*Proposed Duty.* £	s.	d.
Oil, sperm,.....	$18,978	$380,037	tun 26	12	0	15	00	0
Lumber,.....	6,064	30,468		—		1	10	0
Wood Articles,.....	145,060	84,007		—			—	
Naval Stores,.....	306,215	464,893		—			—	
Tar,.....	—	—	0	01	3	0	00	6
Rosin,.....	—	—	0	04	9	0	02	0

Articles.	1839.	1840.	*Pres. Duty.* £ s. d.	*Prop. Duty.* £ s. d.
Turpentine,	—	—	0 05 4	0 01 0
Skins and Furs,	647,595	1,117,374	30 per cent.	15 per cent.
Tallow,	—	17,924	0 03 2	0 00 6
Butter,	—	13,674	1 00 0	1 00 0
Wheat,	11,073	685,609	—	—
Flour,	1,326,600	3,387,343	0 16 2	0 07 6
Corn,	467	59,935	—	—
Rye,	1,015	14,842	—	—
Apples,	21,044	20,560	0 05 0	0 02 9
Rice,	423,654	288,190	0 15 0	0 05 0
Cotton,	46,074,579	40,945,743	cwt. 0 02 4	0 02 11
Tobacco,	5,404,967	3,227,880	0 03 0	0 03 0
do. manufactured,	118,166	152,009	0 09 0	0 09 0
Flaxseed,	161,782	119,988	qr. 0 01 0	cwt. 0 05 0
Iron Articles,	—	73,226	—	—
Coin,	846,790	1,905,957	—	—
Other Articles,	187,280	230,000	—	—
Wax,	—	7,759	1 10 0	0 10 0
TOTAL,				
Domestic Exports,	$56,971,378	$54,192,176		
In Amer. vessels,	43,111,378	43,231,708		
In For'gn vessels,	12,658,500	10,960,468		

EXPORTS OF FOREIGN GOODS TO GREAT BRITAIN.

Articles.	1834.	1836.	1837.	1839.	1840.	*Present Duty.*	*Proposed Duty.*
Furs,	15,116	28,758	18,528	37,983	22,422	0 0 4	0 0 4
Hides, Raw,	153,129	38,462	119,089	44,220	48,853	0 4 8	0 2 0
Wd. Dye, &c.	246,130	54,561	57,231	18,217	93,877	5 0 0	1 10 0
Copper,	35,340	500	12,000	27,540	18,682	0 15 0	15 p. c.
Gold,	270	—	1,015,487	1,960,931	907,988	—	—
Silver,	—	2,500	817,583	355,764	1,569,841	—	—
Coffee,	247,813	63,195	180,521	11,716	—	0 1 3	0 0 8
Teas,	—	18,428	112,913	177,436	753,992	0 2 1	0 2 1
Camphor,	—	—	36,633	10,200	32,643	0 1 0	0 1 0
Silks,	—	3,367	29,837	23,780	372,999	0 15 0	0 15 0
Wstd. Goods,	273,605	—	17,184	16,132	37,695	0 0 6	0 0 6
Linen,	174,987	14,629	50,928	6,427	8,441	0 1 0	15 p. c.
Cloths,	144,505	68,781	130,170	40,980	225,612	15 p. c.	15 p. c.
Blankets,	—	—	8,033	16,986	17,029	15 p. c.	15 p. c.
Cotton G'ds,	255,000	—	303,170	583,339	112,050	10 p. c.	10 p. c.
Sewing Silk,	—	—	224,766	31,133	18,043	0 2 0	0 1 0
Indigo,	147,077	68,700	57,860	27,805	40,370	0 0 4	0 0 4
Wool,	247,489	40,293	70,029	36,508	25,234	0 0 1	0 0 1
Sugar,	—	173,438	166,210	11,327	22,000	3 3 0	3 3 0
Cotton,	45,383	139,448	165,996	209,989	81,036	0 2 11	0 2 11
Oth. Articles,	1,632,000	798,142	1,249,000	876,231	758,429	—	—
TOTAL,							
For'gn Exp'ts,	3,003,704	1,879,305	4,896,768	4,102,751	5,096,882		
In Am. vess.	1,309,546	549,094	2,886,490	1,328,183	2,773,004		
In For'n vess.	1,634,158	1,333,441	2,010,874	2,774,578	2,361,878		

The necessity for an increase of revenue has sufficed to harmonize the conflicting opinions in relation to high and low tariff, so far as to allow of the imposition of rates as high as will yield the greatest amount of revenue. The vexatious question of the distribution of the proceeds of the public lands at present retards legislative action upon the subject, and leaves commercial affairs in a state of uncertainty at war with the best interests of the country. The reduction of the English duties it is hoped will be attended with an increased trade between the two countries, and result in the double benefit that while it increases the sale of American produce abroad, it will, by reducing the stock, increase the home money value of the remainder.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

POPULATION OF THE MIDDLE STATES,

ACCORDING TO THE SIXTH DECENNIAL CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES, 1840.

A Statement showing the aggregate amount of each description of persons in the Middle states, by counties.

NEW YORK.

COUNTIES.	FREE WHITE PERSONS.		FREE COLORED PERSONS.		SLAVES.		TOTAL.
NORTHERN.	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	
Albany,	33,758	33,521	595	719			68,593
Allegany,	21,318	19,515	67	75			40,975
Broome,	11,316	10,799	109	114			22,338
Cattaraugus,	14,937	13,897	17	21			28,872
Cayuga,	25,482	24,421	238	197			50,338
Chautauque,	24,345	23,506	57	67			47,975
Chemung,	10,564	10,055	68	45			20,732
Chenango,	20,314	20,198	140	133			40,785
Clinton,	14,386	13,685	48	38			28,157
Cortlandt,	12,385	12,176	21	25			24,607
Delaware,	17,776	17,430	100	90			35,396
Erie,	32,173	29,684	328	280			62,465
Essex,	12,111	11,445	47	31			23,634
Franklin,	8,390	8,125	2	1			16,518
Fulton,	8,871	9,064	58	56			18,049
Genesee,	30,015	29,457	64	51			59,587
Herkimer,	19,250	17,940	143	144			37,477
Hamilton,	1,051	853	1	2			1,907
Jefferson,	31,276	29,567	70	71			60,984
Lewis,	9,174	8,603	25	28			17,830
Livingston,	18,389	16,611	63	77			35,140
Monroe,	33,208	31,039	341	314			64,902
Madison,	20,201	19,584	117	106			40,008
Montgomery,	18,890	16,350	263	325			35,818
Niagara,	16,104	14,787	143	98			31,132
Oneida,	42,930	41,736	323	321			85,310
Onondaga,	34,904	32,530	229	248			67,911
Ontario,	21,872	20,965	315	349			43,501
Orleans,	12,923	12,135	37	32			25,127
Oswego,	22,439	20,965	105	110			43,619
Otsego,	24,560	24,846	112	110			49,628
Rensselaer,	29,627	29,442	608	582			60,259
Saratoga,	20,202	19,702	306	343			40,553
Schenectady,	8,763	8,214	191	219			17,387
Schoharie,	16,002	15,863	253	240			32,358
Seneca,	12,609	12,066	100	99			24,874
St. Lawrence,	28,925	27,746	19	16			56,706
Steuben,	23,694	22,156	145	143			46,138
Tioga,	10,483	9,882	92	70			20,527
Tompkins,	18,996	18,699	134	119			37,948
Washington,	20,706	20,102	138	134			41,080
Wayne,	21,424	20,411	116	106			42,057
Warren,	6,861	6,529	18	14			13,422
Yates,	10,335	9,975	69	65			20,444
North. TOTAL,	853,929	816,276	6,435	6,428			1,683,068

POPULATION OF THE MIDDLE STATES.—*Continued.*

NEW YORK.—*Continued.*

COUNTIES. SOUTHERN.	FREE WHITE PERSONS.		FREE COLORED PERSONS.		SLAVES.		TOTAL.
	Males.	*Females.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	
N. Y. city & co.	142,731	153,621	6,923	9,435	.....	.....	312,710
Green,.....	15,072	14,481	446	447	.....	.....	30,446
Ulster,.....	22,591	21,427	854	950	.....	.....	45,822
Sullivan,.....	8,168	7,381	40	40	.....	.....	15,629
Columbia,.....	21,254	20,442	739	817	.....	.....	43,252
Putnam,.....	6,513	6,144	93	74	.....	1	12,825
Westchester,.....	24,533	21,853	1,288	1,012	.....	.....	48,686
Richmond,.....	5,247	5,235	250	233	.....	.....	10,965
Suffolk,.....	15,395	14,897	1,155	1,022	.....	.....	32,469
Kings,.....	21,917	22,850	1,368	1,475	.....	3	47,613
Queens,.....	13,825	12,990	1,755	1,754	.....	.....	30,324
Rockland,.....	6,192	5,351	227	205	.....	.....	11,975
Orange,.....	24,725	23,722	1,124	1,168	.....	.....	50,739
Dutchess,.....	25,265	24,863	1,112	1,158	.....	.....	52,398
South. TOTAL,...	353,428	355,257	17,374	19,790	.....	4	745,853

RECAPITULATION OF NEW YORK.

Population of the Northern District,.....	1,683,068
" Southern District,.....	745,853
TOTAL,.....	2,428,921

NEW JERSEY.—*As above.*

COUNTIES.							
Bergen,.....	5,909	5,563	843	686	118	104	13,223
Essex,.....	20,832	21,861	899	1,009	13	7	44,621
Hudson,.....	4,718	4,435	197	122	4	7	9,483
Passaic,.....	8,931	7,011	377	329	32	54	16,734
Morris,.....	12,606	12,290	485	426	17	20	25,844
Warren,.....	10,267	9,636	242	213	4	4	20,366
Sussex,.....	10,929	10,474	180	174	4	9	21,770
Somerset,.....	7,877	7,821	915	737	43	62	17,455
Middlesex,.....	9,952	10,378	715	820	10	18	21,893
Hunterdon,.....	11,991	11,985	389	389	16	19	24,789
Mercer,.....	9,691	9,476	1,112	1,207	10	12	21,502
Monmouth,.....	15,716	14,928	1,108	1,072	32	53	32,909
Burlington,.....	15,434	15,753	828	815	.....	1	32,831
Gloucester,.....	12,151	11,656	836	795	.....	.....	25,438
Atlantic,.....	4,418	4,074	120	114	.....	.....	8,726
Salem,.....	7,251	6,976	967	829	.....	1	16,024
Cumberland,.....	6,796	6,682	475	421	.....	.....	14,374
Cape May,.....	2,586	2,540	92	106	.....	.....	5,324
TOTAL,...	177,055	174,533	10,780	10,264	303	371	373,306

DELAWARE.—*As above.*

COUNTIES.							
Newcastle,.....	12,797	13,009	3,476	3,297	298	243	33,120
Kent,.....	6,885	6,733	2,952	2,875	232	195	19,872
Sussex,.....	9,577	9,560	2,198	2,121	841	796	25,093
TOTAL,...	29,259	29,302	8,626	8,293	1,371	1,234	78,085

POPULATION OF THE MIDDLE STATES.—*Continued.*
PENNSYLVANIA.

COUNTIES.	FREE WHITE PERSONS.		FREE COLORED PERSONS.		SLAVES.		TOTAL.
EASTERN.	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	
Adams,	11,188	11,164	337	353		2	23,044
Berks,	32,313	31,730	283	241		2	64,569
Bucks,	23,435	22,933	937	802			48,107
Chester,	26,825	26,547	2,187	1,956			57,515
Cumberland,	15,043	14,890	492	504	18	6	30,953
Dauphin,	14,894	14,267	449	508			30,118
Delaware,	9,239	9,219	720	613			19,791
Franklin,	17,955	17,805	979	1,054			37,793
Lancaster,	40,781	40,417	1,534	1,469		2	84,203
Lebanon,	10,733	11,036	50	53			21,872
Lehigh,	12,898	12,856	23	10			25,787
Monroe,	5,135	4,694	29	21			9,879
Montgomery,	24,523	22,038	362	318			47,241
Northampton,	20,831	20,001	92	72			40,996
Perry,	8,564	8,378	81	73			17,096
Philadelphia,	111,887	126,317	8,316	11,515		2	258,037
Pike,	1,946	1,737	74	75			3,832
Schuylkill,	14,937	13,791	177	148			29,053
Wayne,	6,227	5,582	20	19			11,848
York,	22,924	23,112	496	477		1	47,010
East. TOTAL,	431,578	439,214	17,638	20,281	18	15	908,744
WESTERN.							
Alleghany,	39,982	39,135	1,076	1,042			81,235
Clinton,	4,331	3,916	43	33			8,323
Warren,	4,891	4,347	23	17			9,278
Bedford,	14,802	14,063	261	209			29,335
Mifflin,	6,492	6,152	220	207	12	9	13,092
Columbia,	12,286	11,906	36	39			24,267
Green,	9,510	9,223	205	208	1		19,147
Susquehanna,	10,766	10,332	49	48			21,195
Fayette,	16,129	15,980	705	759	1		33,574
Washington,	20,232	19,932	557	556		2	41,279
Butler,	11,527	10,790	33	28			22,378
Armstrong,	14,309	13,944	56	56			28,365
Juniata,	5,512	5,459	63	45	1		11,080
Beaver,	14,760	14,342	139	127			29,368
Northumberland,	10,109	9,813	56	49			20,027
Indiana,	10,470	10,157	83	72			20,782
Union,	11,360	11,340	49	35	2	1	22,787
Erie,	16,282	14,962	62	38			31,344
Huntingdon,	18,146	16,831	254	253			35,484
Lycoming,	11,381	10,909	185	174			22,649
Venango,	9,350	8,523	18	9			17,900
Somerset,	9,971	9,597	45	37			19,650
McKean,	1,562	1,408	3	2			2,975
Centre,	10,453	9,738	160	141			20,492
Tioga,	8,012	7,417	34	35			15,498
Jefferson,	3,828	3,368	23	34			7,253
Potter,	1,753	1,617	1				3,371
Westmoreland,	21,183	21,225	177	113		1	42,690
Crawford,	16,566	15,043	63	52			31,720
Mercer,	16,576	15,969	169	159			32,870
Cambria,	5,778	5,380	47	51			11,256
Luzerne,	23,581	20,230	107	87		1	44,006
Clearfield,	4,083	3,694	35	22			7,834
Bradford,	17,219	15,389	77	84			32,769
West. TOTAL,	413,192	392,131	5,114	4,821	17	14	815,289

POPULATION OF THE MIDDLE STATES.—*Continued.*

MARYLAND.

COUNTIES.	FREE WHITE PERSONS.		FREE COLORED PERSONS.		SLAVES.		TOTAL.
	Males.	*Females.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	
Alleghany,.....	8,127	6,536	113	102	374	438	15,690
Washington,.....	12,668	12,056	772	808	1,288	1,258	28,850
Frederick,.....	14,415	14,560	1,443	1,542	2,361	2,084	36,405
Carroll,.....	7,533	7,688	450	448	596	526	17,241
Baltimore,.....	50,908	54,423	8,963	12,490	3,473	4,122	134,379
Harford,.....	6,154	5,887	1,257	1,179	1,354	1,289	17,120
Montgomery,.....	4,397	4,369	646	667	2,799	2,578	15,456
Prince George,...	3,860	3,963	585	495	5,414	5,222	19,539
St. Mary's,.....	3,043	3,027	699	694	2,926	2,835	13,224
Calvert,.....	1,866	1,719	722	752	2,104	2,066	9,229
Charles,.....	2,968	3,054	401	418	4,615	4,567	16,023
Anne Arundel,...	7,297	7,333	2,513	2,570	5,179	4,640	29,532
Cecil, ...	6,844	6,485	1,318	1,233	708	644	17,232
Kent,.....	2,860	2,736	1,275	1,216	1,517	1,218	10,842
Caroline,.....	2,694	2,640	861	859	397	355	7,806
Talbot,.....	3,095	2,968	1,170	1,170	1,907	1,780	12,090
Queen Anne,.....	3,175	2,957	1,308	1,233	2,088	1,872	12,633
Somerset,.....	5,654	5,831	1,240	1,406	2,863	2,514	19,508
Dorchester,.....	5,355	5,274	1,925	2,062	2,216	2,011	18,843
Worcester,.....	5,871	5,894	1,526	1,547	1,889	1,650	18,377
TOTAL,...	158,804	159,400	29,187	32,891	46,068	43,669	470,019

STATISTICS OF COINAGE.

COST OF COINAGE AT THE U. S. MINT AND ITS BRANCHES.

We compile the following particulars of the cost of coinage at the several mints of the United States, from a report laid before Congress, March 31, 1842:—

The cost of coining 100 pieces at the New Orleans branch mint was, for 1838, $15 40; for 1839, $2 99; for 1840, $1 50; and for 1841, $1 41.

The cost of coining 100 pieces at the Charlotte branch mint was, for 1838, $72 18; for 1839, $35 30; for 1840, $37 70; and for 1841, $37 79.

The cost of coining 100 pieces at the Dahlonega branch mint was, for 1838, $67 04; for 1839, $42 62; for 1840, $43 51; and for 1841, $28 50.

The actual cost of coining $100 worth at the Philadelphia mint was, for 1838, $1 52; for 1839, $2 07; for 1840, $2 48; and for 1841, $4 34; the average of the four years being $2 23.

The cost of coining $100 worth at the New Orleans branch mint was, for 1838 $154 06; for 1839, $19 72; for 1840, $5 68; and for 1841, $8 12; the average for the last two years—the first two not being a fair criterion of the average cost, being $6 68.

The cost of coining $100 worth at the Charlotte branch mint was, for 1838, $17 82; for 1839, $9 03; for 1840, $9 44; and for 1841, $9 02; the average of the four years being $10 59, and that of the last three years $9 15.

The cost of coining $100 worth at the Dahlonega branch mint was, for 1838, $12 43; for 1839, $10 78; for 1840, $9 32; and for 1841, $6 06; the average of the four years being $9 47.

The actual cost of coining $100 worth at the Philadelphia mint was, for 1838, $1 52;

for 1839, $2 07; for 1840, $2 48; and for 1841, $4 34; the average of the four years being $2 23.

The cost of coining $100 worth at the New Orleans branch mint was, for 1838, $154 06; for 1839, $19 72; for 1840, $5 68; and for 1841, $8 12. The first of these should be excluded, and perhaps the second, as any foundation for a judgment respecting this mint. The average for the last two years was $6 68.

The cost of coining $100 worth at the Charlotte branch mint was, for 1838, $17 82; for 1839, $9 03; for 1840, $9 44; and for 1841, $9 02; the average of the four years being $10 59, and that of the last three years $9 15.

The cost of coining $100 worth at the Dahlonega branch mint was, for 1838, $12 43; for 1839, $10 78; for 1840, $9 32; and for 1841, $6 06; the average of the four years being $9 47; and that of the last three $8 49.

The cost of coining 100 *pieces* of coin at the Philadelphia mint was, in 1838, $0 39; for 1839, $0 67; for 1840, $0 79; and for 1841, $1 12; the average for the four years being 64 cents.

The cost of coining 100 *pieces* at the New Orleans branch mint was, for 1838, $15 40; for 1839, $2 99; for 1840, $1 50; and for 1841, $1 41.

The cost of coining 100 *pieces* at the Charlotte branch mint was, for 1838, $72 18; for 1839, $35 30; for 1840, $37 70; and for 1841, $37 79.

The cost of coining 100 *pieces* at the Dahlonega branch mint was, for 1838, $67 04; for 1839, $42 62; for 1840, $42 51; and for 1841, $28 50.

For a complete and comprehensive view of the movement of the United States Mint and its branches, see Merchants' Magazine, for April, 1842, vol. 6, number 4, pp. 375, 376, 377, 378, 379, 380, 381.

I.—COINAGE OF THE BRANCH MINTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement of the amounts coined annually at the branch mints, from the commencement of their operations until December 31, 1841.

MINTS.	*Periods.*	WHOLE COINAGE.	
		Number of Pieces.	*Value.*
Charlotte, North Carolina,	1838	20,780	$84,165 00
do. do.	1839	41,640	162,767 50
do. do.	1840	31,828	127,055 00
do. do.	1841	31,748	133,037 50
TOTAL,		125,996	507,025 00
Dahlonega, Georgia,	1838	20,583	102,915 00
do. do.	1839	32,613	128,880 00
do. do.	1840	26,428	123,310 00
do. do.	1841	34,659	162,885 00
TOTAL,		114,283	517,990 00
New Orleans, Louisiana,	1838	402,430	40,243 00
do. do.	1839	2,476,996	263,650 00
do. do.	1840	3,446,900	915,600 00
do. do.	1841	3,693,730	640,200 00
TOTAL,		10,020,056	1,859,693 00
Sum of totals,		10,260,335	$2,884,708 00

II.—DEPOSITS FOR COINAGE AT THE UNITED STATES MINT AND ITS BRANCHES.

Statement of the Annual Amounts of Deposits of Gold for Coinage, at the Mint of the United States and its Branches, from Mines in the United States; taken from the last Annual Report of Dr. R. M. Patterson, Director of the Mint, dated January 19, 1842.

PERIODS.	DEPOSITED AT THE UNITED STATES MINT.								DEPOSITED AT THE BRANCH MINTS.				MINT AND BR'NCHES.
	From Virginia.	*From North Carolina.*	*From South Carolina.*	*From Georgia.*	*From Tennessee.*	*From Alabama.*	*From vario's so'rces.*	*Total at United States Mint.*	*At Charlotte, North Carolina.*	*At Dahlonega, Georgia.*	*At New Orleans.*	*Total at Branch Mints.*	*Total deposits of U. States gold.*
1824	.....	$5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	$5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	$5,000
1825	.....	17,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	17,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	17,000
1826	.....	20,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	20,000
1827	.....	21,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	21,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	21,000
1828	.....	46,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	46,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	46,000
1829	$2,500	134,000	$3,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	140,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	140,000
1830	24,000	204,000	26,000	$212,000	.....	.....	.....	466,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	466,000
1831	26,000	294,000	22,000	176,000	$1,000	.....	$1,000	520,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	520,000
1832	34,000	458,000	45,000	140,000	1,000	.....	.....	678,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	678,000
1833	104,000	475,000	66,000	216,000	7,000	.....	.....	868,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	868,000
1834	62,000	380,000	38,000	415,000	3,000	.....	.....	898,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	898,000
1835	60,400	263,500	42,400	319,900	100	.....	12,900	698,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	698,500
1836	62,000	148,100	55,200	201,400	300	.....	.....	467,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	467,000
1837	52,100	116,900	29,400	83,600	.....	.....	.....	282,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	282,000
1838	55,000	66,000	13,000	36,000	1,500	.....	200	171,700	$127,000	$135,700	$700	$263,400	435,100
1839	57,600	53,500	6,300	20,300	300	$500	.....	138,500	126,836	113,035	6,869	246,740	385,240
1840	38,995	36,804	5,319	91,113	104	4,431	.....	176,766	124,726	121,858	2,835	249,419	426,185
1841	25,736	76,431	3,440	139,796	1,912	1,863	.....	248,748	129,847	161,974	1,818	293,639	542,117
	604,331	2,815,235	355,559	2,051,109	15,516	6,794	13,400	5,861,944	508,409	532,567	12,222	1,053,198	6,915,142

It will be seen by this table that, from and including the year 1829, the annual amount of gold from the mines in the United States, deposited for coinage, rapidly increased till 1834, when it reached its maximum. Since then, notwithstanding the establishment of the branch mints, and the stimulus which they were expected to give to the mining operations, the amount has greatly diminished. It will be observed, also, that nearly one-half of the whole amount of gold obtained from the mines of the United States and deposited for coinage, since the establishment of the branch mints, has been deposited at and coined by the principal mint, notwithstanding the vicinity of the branch mints in Georgia and North Carolina to the principal mines.

BANK STATISTICS.

PRICE OF BANK NOTES AT PHILADELPHIA FOR TWENTY-EIGHT YEARS, FROM 1814 TO 1841.

The following table was prepared by William M. Gouge, Esq., editor of the "Journal of Banking," and author of "A Short History of Paper Money and Banking." It was compiled (with the exception of the column for 1841) from various tables, prepared by Mr. Gouge or under his direction, while in the Treasury Department. It is well worth the labor that has been bestowed upon it, for to those who will make a proper use of it, it will serve as a condensed history of the currency for more than a quarter of a century. A few prominent facts should be borne in mind in perusing this table.

On the 30th of August, 1814, the Philadelphia banks suspended specie payments for the *first time*, and the other banks in the middle and southern states within a week or two of that date. The New Orleans banks had suspended payment in the April previous; but the banks of Kentucky and Ohio continued to pay specie till about the 1st of January, 1815; and the only bank then in Tennessee did not suspend payment till July or August, 1815. Through the whole of this, the *first* general suspension of specie payments, the banks of New England continued to pay specie, with the exception of a few banks in Maine that stopped payment early in 1814.

During the first suspension of specie payments, the notes of non-specie-paying banks were received in payment of public dues.

On the 1st of January, 1817, the Bank of the United States commenced operations at Philadelphia. Of the effect it had in "regulating the currency," the reader can judge for himself. The table gives the prices of western and southern bank notes at Philadelphia, in that and each subsequent year.

On the 21st of February, 1817, the United States government refused any longer to receive the notes of non-specie-paying banks in payment of public dues.

In 1824, the system known as the Suffolk Bank system (a description of which was published in vol. v. pages 261, 262, of the Merchants' Magazine) was adopted in New England. The reader, on scanning the table, will not fail to be struck with the *uniformity* of value which the notes of the many hundred banks of the eastern states have since maintained, and this whether the banks have sustained or suspended specie payments.

On the 11th of May, 1837, the New York and Natchez banks suspended specie payments; and as fast as the news spread from these two cities, east, west, north, and south, the other banks suspended also. In this, the *second* general suspension of specie payments, the banks of New England were included.

In one year afterwards, or in May, 1838, the New York banks resumed specie payments, and their conduct was immediately followed by the banks of New England. These banks have since (with the exception of the banks of Rhode Island) steadily maintained specie payments.

In August, 1838, the banks of Philadelphia professed to resume specie payments; and by the 1st of January, 1839, there was at least a *nominal* resumption of specie payments throughout the Union.

In a little more than a year, or on the 9th of October, 1839, the banks of Philadelphia suspended specie payments for the *third* time, and their example was quickly imitated by all the banks to the south and west, and also by the banks of West Jersey and Rhode Island. The Bank of Missouri did not, indeed, suspend payment on its own notes; but as it traded on the notes of other western banks, it became an issuer of inconvertible paper. The banks of Rhode Island soon resumed specie payments. The banks of South Carolina resumed specie payments in June or July, 1840. All the other banks to

A Table showing the highest and lowest prices of bank notes at Philadelphia, in each year, from October 31st, 1814, to December 31st, 1841.

[In this table, *p* stands for premium; *d* for discount: *a* is an abbreviation of the Latin *ad*, to.]

Banks of—	1814.	1815.	1816.	1817.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.
Maine,	—	—	—	—	—	—	4 d.	—
New Hampshire,	—	—	—	—	—	—	2 a 4 d.	1 a 2 d.
Vermont,	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 a 4 d.	3 d.
Boston,	par a 20 p.	7 a 25 p.	5 a 17 p.	2 d. a 4 p.	par a 1½ d.	par a 2 d.	1 a 4 d.	½ a 2 d.
Other Massachusetts,	—	—	—	—	—	4 a 5 d.	1 a 5 d.	½ a 2 d.
Rhode Island,	—	—	—	—	—	1 a 3 d.	1 a 4 d.	2 d.
Connecticut,	—	—	—	—	—	2 a 3 d.	1½ a 4 d.	½ a 2 d.
New York city,	par a 2 p.	par a 6 p.	3 a 9½ p.	par a 3½ p.	par.	par.	par.	par.
New York country,	—	—	—	3 d.	2 a 4 d.	2½ a 6 d.	1 a 3 d.	1 a 6 d.
Philadelphia,	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.
Other Pennsylvania,	7½ d.	3 a 10 d.	4½ a 14 d.	par a 9 d.	par a 30 d.	par a 5 d.	par a 4 d.	par a 3 d.
New Jersey,	—	—	par a 5 d.	par.	par.	par a 2 d.	par a 1 d.	par.
Delaware,	1 a 4 d.	2 a 5 d.	3 a 9 d.	par a 10 d.	par a 30 d.	par.	par.	par.
Baltimore,	3 a 5 d.	2 a 6½ d.	2½ a 7 d.	par a 4½ d.	par a 1½ d.	¼ a 2½ d.	½ d.	½ d.
Other Maryland,	—	—	3 a 10 d.	3 a 10 d.	2 a 30 d.	2 a 8 d.	1½ a 3 d.	½ a 3 d.
District of Columbia,	—	—	4 a 10 d.	par a 6 d.	par a 2½ d.	1 a 3½ d.	1 a 3 d.	—
Virginia,	5 a 10 d.	par a 8 d.	par a 6 p.	1 p. a 2 d.	par a 10 d.	1½ a 8 d.	1 a 3 d.	½ a 2 d.
Virginia, Western,	—	—	—	—	—	8 a 12½ d.	8 a 12½ d.	5 a 8 d.
North Carolina,	5 a 10 d.	2½ p. a 8 d.	par a 6 p.	1 p. a 3 d.	1½ a 6 d.	3 a 17½ d.	2½ a 10 d.	2 a 4½ d.
South Carolina,	5 a 10 d.	—	2 a 8 p.	2 d. a 4 p.	½ a 3 d.	1½ a 8 d.	par a 6 d.	½ a 3 d.
Georgia,	5 a 10 d.	—	—	1 d.	1 a 4 d.	2 a 14 d.	1½ a 10 d.	1¼ a 5 d.
Alabama,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Louisiana,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mississippi,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tennessee,	—	—	—	5 a 6 d.	4½ a 12½ d.	12½ a 20 d.	few sales.	35 d.
Kentucky,	—	—	6 a 10 d.	4½ a 6 d.	4½ a 10 d.	12½ a 25 d.	12½ a 30 d.	30 a 50 d.
Ohio,	5 a 7½ d.	3 a 10 d.	5 a 12 d.	4 a 15 d.	4½ a 12½ d.	15 a 30 d.	12½ a 25 d.	5 a 12½ d.
Michigan,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
U. S. Branch Bank Notes,	—	—	—	—	par a 1 d.	½ a 1 d.	½ a 4 d.	½ a 2 d.
American Silver,	7 a 12 p.	2 a 17 p.	7 a 17 p.	par a 5 p.	—	—	—	—

the south and west of New York (with the exception of the East Jersey banks, and a few others scattered in different places) continued to refuse payment of specie on demand.

January 15th, 1841, the banks of Philadelphia resumed specie payments, and sustained them for about twenty days, or until the 4th of February. They then, for the *fourth* time, suspended specie payments; and did not resume them again till the 18th and 19th of March, 1842.

A Table showing the highest and lowest prices of bank notes at Philadelphia, in each year, from October 31st, 1814, to December 31st, 1841.—Continued.

Banks of—	1822.	1823.	1824.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.
Maine,	4 a 10 d.	10 d.	10 d.	2 a 10 d.	2½ d.	1½ a 2½ d.	1½ a 2 d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 a 1½ d.	½ a 1 d.
New Hampshire,	2 a 3 d.	2 d.	1½ a 2 d.	1½ a 2½ d.	2½ d.	1 a 2½ d.	1 a 2 d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 a 1½ d.	½ a ¾ d.
Vermont,	3 d.	3 d.	2 a 3 d.	2 a 2½ d.	2½ d.	1 a 2½ d.	1 a 2 d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 a 1½ d.	½ a ¾ d.
Massachusetts,	½ a 3 d.	1 a 2 d.	1 a 2 d.	1 a 2½ d.	1 a 2½ d.	1 a 2½ d.	1 a 2 d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 a 1½ d.	½ a ¾ d.
Rhode Island,	2 d.	2 d.	1½ a 2 d.	1½ a 2½ d.	2 a 2½ d.	1 a 2 d.	1 a 2 d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 a 1½ d.	½ a ¾ d.
Connecticut,	1 a 1½ d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 a 1½ d.	1½ a 2 d.	1½ a 2 d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 a 2 d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 a 1½ d.	½ a ¾ d.
New York city,	par.	par.	par.	par.	par.	par.	par.	par.	par.	par a ½ d.
New York country,	1 a 5 d.	1 a 5 d.	1 d.	1 a 5 d.	1½ a 5 d.	1 a 3 d.	1½ a 2½ d.	1½ a 2½ d.	1½ d.	¼ a 1 d.
Philadelphia,	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.
Other Pennsylvania,	par a 3 d.	par a 5 d.	par a 1½ d.	par a 1 d.	par.	par a 1 d.	par a 1 d.	par a 1 d.	par a 1 d.	par a 2 d.
New Jersey,	par a 1 d.	par a 1½ d.	par.	par.	par a 1½ d.	par a 2 d.	par a 1½ d.	par a 2 d.	par a 1½ d.	par a 1 d.
Delaware,	par.	par a 1 d.	par.	par.	par.	par a 1½ d.	par a 1 d.	par.	par a ½ d.	par a ½ d.
Baltimore,	½ a ¾ d.	½ d.	½ d.	½ d.	¼ a ½ d.	par a ¼ d.	par a ¼ d.	¼ d.	¼ d.	par a ¼ d.
Other Maryland,	1 a 1½ d.	½ a 1½ d.	1 d.	1 d.	½ a 1 d.	¼ a ¾ d.	¼ a 1½ d.	½ a 1 d.	¾ d.	½ a 1 d.
District of Columbia,	½ a 1½ d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 a 1½ d.	¼ a 1 d.	½ a 1 d.	¼ a ½ d.	½ a 1 d.	½ a 1 d.	½ a ¾ d.	½ d.
Virginia,	1 a 3 d.	¼ a 2 d.	½ a ¾ d.	½ a 1 d.	½ a 1 d.	¼ a 1½ d.	½ a 1½ d.	½ a 1 d.	½ a 1 d.	½ a 1 d.
Virginia, Western,	5 d.	5 d.	4 a 5 d.	4 a 5 d.	4 a 5 d.	3 a 4½ d.	3½ a 4 d.	3 a 3½ d.	2 a 2½ d.	1 d.
North Carolina,	2½ a 12½ d.	3 a 12½ d.	3½ a 5½ d.	3 a 5 d.	2½ a 5 d.	3 a 5½ d.	4 a 12½ d.	2½ a 3½ d.	1½ a 2½ d.	1 a 2 d.
South Carolina,	1 a 5 d.	2 a 5 d.	1 a 3 d.	1 a 2½ d.	1½ a 2 d.	¾ a 1½ d.	1 a 2½ d.	1½ a 2 d.	1 a 1½ d.	¼ a 2 d.
Georgia,	2½ a 9 d.	2 a 15 d.	2½ a 5 d.	2 a 4 d.	2¼ a 3½ d.	2 a 3 d.	2 a 4 d.	2 a 2½ d.	1½ a 2½ d.	1 a 3 d.
Florida,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	10 d.
Alabama,	—	—	—	—	10 a 15 d.	10 a 25 d.	20 a 25 d.	10 a 15 d.	10 a 15 d.	5 a 15 d.
Louisiana,	1½ a 8 d.	3 a 7 d.	2 a 7d.	2 a 5 d.	5 a 6 d.	4 a 5 d.	4 a 6 d.	4 a 5 d.	4 d.	3 a 5 d.
Mississippi,	—	—	—	7 a 10 d.	6 a 10 d.	6 d.	6 a 7 d.	5 a 6 d.	5 d.	5 d.
Tennessee,	30 a 35 d.	35 d.	30 d.	15 a 20 d.	10 a 20 d.	7 a 10 d.	9 a 10 d.	6 a 10 d.	7½ d.	5 a 7½ d.
Kentucky,	45 a 75 d.	70 d.	55 a 70 d.	45 a 55 d.	30 a 50 d.	30 a 40 d.	25 a 35 d.	25 a 35 d.	25 a 35 d.	20 a 35 d.
Missouri,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Illinois,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	no sales.
Indiana,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	no sales.
Ohio,	5 a 8 d.	5 a 6 d.	5 a 6 d.	5 a 8 d.	4 a 8 d.	4 a 6 d.	3½ a 4 d.	2½ a 3½ d.	2½ a 3 d.	1½ a 3 d.
Michigan,	—	—	—	—	10 d.	3 a 10 d.	3 d.	3 d.	2 a 3 d.	1½ a 2 d.
U. S. Br'ch Bk. Notes,	½ a 2 d.	¼ a ½ d.	par.	par.	par.	par.	—	—	—	—
American Silver,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

A Table showing the highest and lowest prices of bank notes at Philadelphia, in each year, from October 31st, 1814, to December 31st, 1841.—Continued.

Banks of—	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Maine,	¼ a 1 d.	¼ a 1 d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 d.	¼ a 1 d.	¼ a 1½ d.	par a 2½ d.	¼ d. a 3 p.	2¼ a 5 p.	½ d. a 5 p.
New Hampshire,	¼ a 1 d.	¼ a 1 d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 d.	¼ a 1 d.	¼ a 1½ d.	par a 2½ d.	¼ d. a 3 p.	2 a 5 p.	½ d. a 5 p.
Vermont,	¼ a 1 d.	¼ a 1 d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 d.	¼ a 1 d.	¼ a 1½ d.	par a 2½ d.	¼ d. a 5 p.	2 a 5 p.	½ d. a 5 p.
Massachusetts,	¼ a 1 d.	¼ a 1 d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 d.	¼ a 1 d.	¼ a 1¼ d.	par a 2½ d.	¼ d. a 7 p.	2 a 6 p.	½ d. a 5 p.
Rhode Island,	¼ a 1 d.	¼ a 1 d.	1 a 1½ d.	1 d.	¼ a 1 d.	¼ a 1½ d.	par a 2½ d.	¼ d. a 6 p.	2 a 6 p.	½ d. a 5 p.
Connecticut,	¼ a 1 d.	½ a 1 d.	1 d.	1 d.	¼ a 1 d.	¼ a 3½ d.	par a 1¼ d.	¼ d. a 8 p.	2 a 6 p.	½ d. a 5 p.
New York city,	par a ½ d.	par a ½ d.	par a ½ d.	par a ½ d.	par a ½ d.	par a 1¼ d.	par a 3 p.	par a 13 p.	2½ a 7 p.	½ d. a 6 p.
New York country,	1 a 1½ d.	½ a 1½ d.	1 a 3 d.	1 d.	1 a 1½ d.	par a 3½ d.	par a 3 p.	¼ d. a 10 p.	1 a 5 p.	2 d. a 6 p.
Philadelphia,	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.	standard.
Other Pennsylvania,	par a 1½ d.	par a 2 d.	par a 1½ d.	par a 2 d.	par a 2½ d.	par a 3 d.	par a 3 d.	par a 3 d.	par a 3 d.	par a 1 d.
New Jersey,	par a 1 d.	par a 2 d.	par a 1 d.	par a 1 d.	par a 1 d.	par a 2 d.	par a 2½ d.	1 d. a 6 p.	par a 5 p.	1 d. a 5½ p.
Delaware,	par a 1 d.	par a ½ d.	par a 1 d.	par a ½ d.	par a ¾ d.	par a ¾ d.	par.	par.	par.	par.
Baltimore,	par a ¼ d.	¼ a ¾ d.	½ d.	¼ a ½ d.	¼ a ½ d.	¼ a 1 d.	¼ a 1½ d.	par a 1½ d.	par a 1 p.	par.
Other Maryland,	½ a 1 d.	½ a 1½ d.	1¼ a 2 d.	¾ a 1 d.	½ a 1 d.	par a 2 d.	¼ a 3 d.	½ a 2 d.	par a ½ d.	par a 5 d.
District of Columbia,	½ a ¾ d.	½ a 1 d.	1 a 3 d.	½ a 1 d.	½ a 1 d.	par a 3½ d.	par a 2 d.	par a 1½ d.	¾ p. a 1 d.	par a 1 d.
Virginia,	¼ a 1 d.	½ a 1½ d.	1 a 3 d.	½ a 1 d.	½ a 1½ d.	½ a 3 d.	½ a 3½ d.	½ a 4 d.	par a 2 d.	par a 3 d.
Virginia, Western,	1½ a 2½ d.	1¼ a 3 d.	1¾ a 11 d.	1 a 2 d.	1½ a 2½ d.	—	1½ a 4 d.	1½ a 5 d.	2 a 3 d.	2 a 8 d.
North Carolina,	1½ a 2 d.	1½ a 3 d.	1 a 3 d.	2 d.	2 a 3 d.	2¼ a 6 d.	2 a 5 d.	1 a 6 d.	¾ a 3 d.	1 a 3 d.
South Carolina,	1½ a 2 d.	1½ a 3 d.	2 a 7 d.	2 d.	2 a 3 d.	2½ a 10 d.	2½ a 10 d.	1 a 7 d.	2 d. a 3 p.	2 p. a 2d.
Georgia,	2½ a 10 d.	3½ a 10 d.	4 a 7 d.	2 a 3 d.	2 a 3 d.	3 a 12 d.	3 a 10 d.	2½ a 10 d.	1¼ a 30 d.	1 a 40 d.
Florida,	10 d.	10 a 20 d.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	75 d.
Alabama,	5 d.	4 a 10 d.	7 a 10 d.	4 a 8 d.	3 a 7 d.	5 a 15 d.	5½ a 20 d.	2 a 15 d.	2 a 10 d.	5 a 10 d.
Louisiana,	4 a 5 d.	3 a 5 d.	5 d.	2½ a 3 d.	2½ a 6 d.	5 a 15 d.	2½ a 12½ d.	par a 7 d.	¼ p. a 10 d.	1 a 6 d.
Mississippi,	5 d.	5 a 6 d.	8 a 10 d.	4 a 5 d.	3 a 6 d.	6 a 20 d.	7½ a 30 d.	5 a 15 d.	15 a 80 d.	20 a 80 d.
Tennessee,	5 d.	3 a 5 d.	5 d.	5 d.	3 a 6 d.	5 a 15 d.	5 a 20 d.	4 a 15 d.	5½ a 10 d.	6 a 15 d.
Kentucky,	20 a 25 d.	3 a 25 d.	2 a 5 d.	2½ a 3 d.	2 a 3 d.	2½ a 8 d.	2½ a 6½ d.	2½ a 5½ d.	3 a 5 d.	4 a 7 d.
Missouri,	no sales.	no sales.	—	no sales.	no sales.	no sales.	4 a 10 d.	4 a 6 d.	5 a 6 d.	5 a 7 d.
Illinois,	no sales.	no sales.	—	4 d.	3 a 5 d.	3 a 8 d.	2½ a 7d.	2½ a 6½ d.	3 a 6 d.	3½ a 8 d.
Indiana,	no sales.	no sales.	5 d.	3 a 4 d.	3 a 3½ d.	3 a 8 d.	2 a 7 d.	2½ a 6½ d.	3 a 6 d.	3½ a 10 d.
Ohio,	1½ a 3 d.	1¼ a 4 d.	2 a 4 d.	2½ a 3 d.	2 a 3 d.	3 a 6 d.	2½ a 6½ d.	2½ a 6 d.	3½ a 5d.	3½ a 15 d.
Michigan,	1½ d.	1½ a 2 d.	2 a 2½ d.	2 d.	2 a 3 d.	2¼ a 15 d	5 a 20 d.	5 a 10 d.	10 a 18 d.	10 a 18 d.
American Silver,	—	—	—	—	—	par a 12 p.	3 a 6 p.	par a 14 p.	2½ a 7 p.	— a 6½ p.

BANK OF FRANCE.

The "Moniteur" publishes the account of the operations of the Bank of France during the first three months of 1842. On the 25th of March there were 211,909,148f. in specie deposited in its vaults. The commercial bills discounted amounted to 152,559,492f.; the advances on ingots and money, to 3,023,600f.; the advances on public securities, to 10,662,071f.; the current accounts, debtors, to 16,146,188f.; the capital of the branch banks, to 20,000,000f.; the reserve, to 10,000,000f.; the lodgements in public securities, to 50,187,018f.; the hotel and furniture of the bank, to 4,000,000f.; and various debts and other objects, to 362,620f.; making the assets of the bank amount in all to 478,550,140f. The bank notes in circulation at the same period, exclusive of those issued by the branch banks, represented a sum of 228,180,500f.; and the bills to order, to 1,102,969f. The discounts, advances, and loans on commercial bills during the three months, amounted to 229,120,000f.; on ingots and money, to 7,335,600f.; on public securities, to 10,006,900f.; on mint bonds, to 863,700f.; in all, to 247,326,600f.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

RATES OF FREIGHT AND PASSAGE ON LAKE ERIE, FOR 1842.

The Buffalo Commercial Advertiser publishes the following table of freights and passage on Lake Erie, &c., as established for the season of 1842:—

ON LAKE ERIE, TO NOV. 1ST.

BUFFALO TO	*Cabin.*	*Steerage.*	*Horse.*	*Wagon.*
Dunkirk,	$2 00	$1 50	$2 00	$2 50 a $3 50
Erie,	2 50	2 00	2 50	"
Conneaut, Ashtabula,	3 50	2 00	3 50	"
Fairport,	4 00	2 50	4 00	"
Cleveland,	4 50	2 50	4 50	"
Charleston, Huron, Sandusky,	5 50	3 00	5 50	"
Toledo, &c. Monroe, Detroit,	6 50	3 00	6 50	"
CLEVELAND TO				
Huron, Sandusky,	2 00	1 00	2 00	"
Toledo, &c. Monroe, Detroit,	3 00	2 00	3 00	"

PRICE OF FREIGHT UNTIL NOV. 1ST.

BUFFALO TO	*Heavy.* 100 *lbs.*	*Light.* 100 *lbs.*	*Barrel.*	*Bulk.*
Silver Creek, Dunkirk, Barcelona, Erie, Conneaut, Ashtabula, Grand River, Cleveland,	20 c.	40 c.	—	50 c.
Charleston, Huron, Sandusky, Toledo, &c., Monroe, Detroit,	25	46	—	50

Down freight from ports upon Lake Erie to Buffalo, will pay as follows:—

Flour, ... barrel	20 cents.	Tobacco, ... 100 lbs.	15 cents.
Wheat, ... barrel	18 "	Ashes, ... "	10 "
Provisions, ... 100 lbs.	10 "	Wool and Peltries, ... "	25 "
Seeds, ... 100 lbs.	15 "	Bacon, ... hhds.	$1 50

PASSAGE TO THE UPPER LAKES, UNTIL OCTOBER 1ST.

BUFFALO TO	*Cabin.*	*Steerage.*	*Horse.*	*Wagon.*
Mackinac,	$16 00	$8 00	$15 00	$5 00 a 7 00
Milwaukie, Racine, Southport, Chicago,	18 00	10 00	15 00	5 00 a 7 00

CLEVELAND TO	*Cabin.*	*Steerage.*	*Horse.*	*Wagon.*
Mackinac,	14 00	7 50	12 50	3 00 a 5 00
Chicago, &c	15 00	8 00	14 00	4 00 a 6 00
DETROIT TO				
Mackinac,	10 00	6 00	10 00	2 50 a 4 50
Chicago, &c	12 00	7 00	12 00	3 00 a 5 00

PRICE OF FREIGHT UNTIL SEPT. 1ST.

BUFFALO TO	*Heavy.* 100 *lbs.*	*Light.* 100 *lbs.*	*Barrel.*	*Bulk.*
Mackinac,	50 c.	75 c.	—	
Milwaukie, Racine, Southport, and Chicago,	50	87½	—	$1 50
Household Furniture,	—	—	—	
CLEVELAND TO				
Mackinac,	50	75		
Chicago, &c	50	87½		
DETROIT TO				
Mackinac,	37½	62½		1 25
Chicago, &c	50	75		

Down freight from the upper lakes will be charged as follows:—

Flour,	barrel 40 cents.	Ashes,	100 lbs. 20 cents.
Provisions,	barrel 62½ "	Hides,	each 15 "
Wheat,	bushel 15 a 22	Lead,	ton $3 75

The charges upon wheat are subject to variations. In the early part of last season, wheat in sacks was brought from the upper lakes to Buffalo for 12½ cents per bushel; but in the autumn, when the demand was good and when a full supply was in store at the west, double that price was paid.

PRESENT RATES OF PILOTAGE FOR TYBEE BAR AND RIVER SAVANNAH.

As Revised by a Law of the State of Georgia, passed December, 1836, adding twenty per cent to the former rates.

DRAFT OF WATER.	BAR PILOTAGE, AND TO COCKSPUR, OR SAFE ANCHORAGE.		FROM COCKSPUR TO SAVANNAH.		TOTAL AMOUNT.	
Feet.	*U. S. Vess.*	*For. Vess.*	*U. S. Vess.*	*For. Vess.*	*U. S. Vess.*	*For. Vess.*
6	$6 72 c.	$10 08 c.	$4 08 c.	$6 12 c.	$10 80 c.	$16 20 c.
7	7 50	11 25	4 50	6 75	12 00	18 00
8	8 22	12 33	4 98	7 47	13 20	19 80
9	10 14	15 21	6 13	9 20	16 27	24 40
10	11 40	17 10	6 90	10 35	18 30	27 45
11	13 32	19 98	7 98	11 97	21 30	31 95
12	16 08	24 12	9 72	14 58	25 80	38 70
12½	17 76	26 64	10 74	16 11	28 50	42 75
13	19 56	29 34	11 79	17 68	31 35	47 02
13½	21 42	32 13	12 93	19 39	34 35	51 52
14	22 14	33 21	13 26	19 89	35 40	53 10
14½	23 46	35 19	14 07	21 11	37 53	56 30
15	25 56	38 34	15 39	23 08	40 95	61 42
15½	27 00	40 50	16 23	24 35	43 23	64 85
16	28 50	42 75	17 10	25 65	45 60	68 40
16½	30 00	45 00	18 03	27 05	48 03	72 05
17	32 34	48 51	19 41	29 11	51 75	77 62
17½	33 90	50 85	20 40	30 60	54 30	81 45
18	35 58	53 37	21 42	32 13	57 00	85 50
18½	37 32	55 98	22 41	33 62	59 73	59 60
19	39 84	59 46	23 91	35 86	63 75	95 62
19½	41 64	62 76	24 99	37 49	66 63	99 95

RUSSIAN TARIFF FOR 1842.

IMPORT DUTIES.	*Roubles.*	*Copecks*
Cotton Yarn,.....per pood	6	50
Dyed and Mixed, White and Colored,.....pood	8	00
Turkey Red,.....pood	15	20
Fabrics, Pure and Mixed, Non-transparent, such as Percals, Fustians, Velverets, and other cloths, White, Plain, or with Designs, or Striped, as well as the common tissue of Turkish origin called Hassa,.....pood	0	83
Handkerchiefs in piece of the same,.....pood	1	85
Tissues dyed of one single color, and embroidered in designs in White, not separately classed,.....pood	1	85
Handkerchiefs, the same,.....pood	2	50
And so on to Shawls and Handkerchiefs of pure Cotton, or mixed with Linen and Hemp, with Colored Designs, &c., in imitation of those of Turkey and Cashmere,.....pood	9	45
Linens—Tablecloths, Napkins, Towels, &c., pure or mixed with Cotton or Wool,.....pood	2	30
Silk Goods, pure or mixed, of one color and changeable, plain and with woven designs, of same color and shade, such as Satins, Taffetas, Levantines, Serges, as well as Velvets of Silk, pure and mixed, of one color,.....pood	5	00
With designs woven and stamped,.....pood	7	50
With gold or silver, fine or false,.....pood	10	20
Handkerchiefs as foregoing, from 7 50 to.....	12	50
Silk, Transparent, from 15 roubles per pound to.....	25	00
Woollens—Yarn White and Dyed,.....pood	17	25
Cloths—Kerseymeres, Ladies' Cloths, Ratteens, Black, Blue Black, Green deeper than Gazon, of one color, or mixed with White, as well as white and blue whites,.....pood	3	50
Cloths as before, of every color not named, and of various colors, mixed,.....pood	1	80
Flannels, Velvets, Plush, &c.....pood	1	90
Handkerchiefs and Shawls in imitation Cashmere,.....pood	10	50
Carpets,.....pood	0	65
Carpets—Embroidered or made up with fringes, &c.....pood	1	26
Linens—Batiste, Toile de Cambrai, White, Plain,.....pood	5	06
Handkerchiefs the same, and with small white or colored borders, not above an inch broad,.....pood	5	06
Having more than an inch flower,.....pood	6	90
Fabrics of Linen or Hemp, pure or mixed with cotton, (excepting as rated,).....	1	85
Pocket handkerchiefs as before with borders or without,.....pood	2	10
Pieces Dyed one color, Figured, Striped, or Embroidered, not separately specified,.....pood	6	90
Handkerchiefs, ditto,.....pood	9	20
Handkerchiefs and Cloths, Printed,.....	prohibited.	
Pottery, varnished pieces, pots and objects of all sorts, white, varnished, and not varnished, except objects not specially denominated,.....pood	4	65
Linen or Hempen Yarn, combed or not,.....pood	4	80
" " " " Dyed,.....pood	7	20
Sugar, Raw,.....pood	3	80
Refined,.....	prohibited.	
Molasses,.....pood	2	00
Coffee,.....pood	6	15
Cutlery, Razors, Knives, &c.....pound	1	20
With ivory and pearl, &c.....pound	5	80
Fine Cutlery,.....	prohibited.	
Tin, in sheets,.....per berkovitz	45	00
Coal,.....	free.	

EXPORT DUTIES.

			Internal Navigation Duty.	
	Roubles.	*Copecks.*	*Roubles.*	*Copecks.*
Hemp,.....per berkovitz	1	00	0	10
Flax, by sea,.....berkovitz	1	50	0	15
Flax, by land,.....berkovitz	1	00	0	10
Tallow,.....berkovitz	2	00	0	20
Wheat,.....tchetwert	0	06	0	00½
Potash, Pearlash, &c.....berkovitz	0	50	0	05
Flaxseed, by sea,.....tchetwert	0	25	0	02½
Flaxseed, by land,.....tchetwert	0	12	0	01¼
Hempseed, by sea,.....tchetwert	0	15	0	01½
Hempseed, by land,.....tchetwert	0	12	0	01¼

Such is the Russian tariff for 1842.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following statistical view of the tonnage and commerce of the United States is derived from a speech of the Hon. Levi Woodbury, the late Secretary of the Treasury. The data is taken from official documents.

The tonnage owned by citizens of the United States was, in 1820, 1,280,165 tons; in 1830, 1,181,776; in 1840, 2,180,764; during the first ten years falling off nearly 100,000 tons, while during the second, it increased nearly 1,000,000 tons. The tonnage of the state of Maine was, in 1820, 140,373 tons; in 1830, 182,485; while in 1840 it had increased to 308,056. Of Massachusetts, in 1820, 315,000; in 1830, 350,000; and in 1840, 539,000. The registered tonnage, or that engaged in foreign trade, in 1820, was 619,000 tons; in 1830 it had decreased to 576,000; while in 1840 it was 899,000 tons. The enrolled tonnage, or that engaged in our domestic trade, was, in 1820, 661,000 tons; in 1830, 615,301, having fallen off, notwithstanding the high tariff; while in 1840 it had risen to 1,262,000 tons. The new tonnage built in the United States in the year 1820, was 47,000 tons; in 1830, 58,000 tons; while in 1840, it was 118,000 tons. In the state of Maine there was built in 1830, 3,364 tons; while in 1840 there was built 38,936 tons.

He then adverted to the tonnage engaged in the carrying trade between this and foreign countries. In 1820 the American tonnage so employed amounted to 804,000 tons; in 1830, 971,000; and in 1840, 1,647,090. The foreign tonnage so employed in 1820 was 100,000 tons; in 1830, 133,000; and in 1840, 712,000 tons; showing that in a commerce to which foreign nations may lay claim to an equal share, our tonnage is more than double theirs. The American tonnage employed in the carrying trade of the four great southern ports, Charleston, Savannah, Mobile, and New Orleans, was, in 1820, 140,000 tons; in 1830, 231,000 tons; and in 1840, 494,000 tons. The foreign tonnage in the same trade in 1820 was 55,000 tons; in 1830, 70,000; and in 1840, 195,000 tons. The American tonnage engaged in the trade between the United States and England and her dependencies was, in 1820, 315,000 tons; in 1830, 343,000; and in 1840, 868,000 tons. The nominal amount of the English tonnage in the same trade was greatly swelled by steamboats on the lakes engaged in carrying passengers on the lakes, which stop at the different ports, their tonnage being counted at every port where they stop. He called attention to a somewhat singular fact, that a port called St. Vincent, in the

state of Vermont, ranked as the fourth in the Union in the amount of tonnage entered and cleared during the year 1840, being exceeded only by New York, Boston, and New Orleans. Upon inquiry of the collector, he had ascertained this was occasioned by steamboats which make thirty or forty trips each year, and schooners making fifteen and twenty, the tonnage being counted each time. The American tonnage in the trade to England alone was, in 1820, 128,000; 1830, 192,000; and in 1840, 358,000 tons. The foreign tonnage in the trade between the two countries was, in 1820, 19,000; in 1830, 58,000; and in 1840, 129,000 tons. The American tonnage in the trade between us and the British West Indies was, in 1820, 22,000 tons; in 1830, 25,000; and in 1840 it had increased to 78,000 tons. The foreign tonnage engaged in the same trade in 1840 was 13,000 tons. The American tonnage engaged in the trade between us and the Hanse Towns was, in 1820, 17,000 tons; in 1830, 14,000; and in 1840, 17,000; while the foreign tonnage was, in 1820, 4,000 tons; in 1830, 10,000; and in 1840, 42,000. This showed a balance against us, for which he considered there was more than an equivalent in the markets opened to our goods into the very heart of Germany.

Having disposed of the tonnage, he would turn to the value of our commerce at the different periods. In 1820 our exports amounted to $69,000,000; in 1830, $73,000,000; and in 1840, $132,000,000. Of these there were of domestic origin, in 1820, $51,000,000; in 1830, $59,462,629; and in 1840, $113,762,617. Our imports amounted in 1820 to 74,000,000; in 1830, to $76,000,000; and in 1840 to $107,000,000.

Our exports to Great Britain and Ireland amounted in 1820 to $28,000,000; in 1830 to $31,000,000; and in 1840 to $70,000,000. Our exports to the British provinces in North America amounted in 1820 to 2,000,000; in 1830 to $3,000,000; and in 1840 it had swelled to $5,889,015; of this a large proportion are breadstuffs, which go to feed the troops in Canada, and to be transhipped to England, where it gets in free of duty, and this of course increases the tonnage of Great Britain in her trade with these provinces. The value of breadstuffs exported in 1820 was $5,000,000; in 1830, $6,000,000; in 1840, $12,993,545, of which $9,353,402 was to England and her dependencies. Our exports to the Hanse Towns in 1820 amounted to $1,500,000; in 1830, $1,500,000; and in 1840 to $3,367,963; and this gain in our exports he considered a full equivalent for our loss in tonnage. The whole amount of our exports and imports in American vessels in 1820 was $137,000,000; in 1830, it had fallen to $129,000,000; and in 1840 it rose to $198,000,000. The amount in foreign vessels in 1820 was $17,000,000; in 1830, $14,000,000; and in 1840, $40,000,000. Thus demonstrating that five times as much of our commerce was carried on by American vessels as those of all other countries. Of our exports to England, American vessels carried in 1820 to the value of $41,000,000; in 1830, $48,000,000; in 1840, $88,000,000: and English vessels in 1820, $10,000,000; in 1830, $9,000,000; and in 1840, $21,000,000, or less than one fourth as much as the Americans.

Mr. Woodbury next proceeded to show the great augmentation of our commerce with those nations particularly whose products were admitted free of duty, of which France will furnish a fair sample, the imports from which to this country in 1820 amounted to $6,000,000; in 1830 to $8,000,000; and in 1840 to $17,000,000. Our exports to that country amounted in 1820 to $ 9,000,000; in 1830 to $11,000,000; and in 1840 to $19,000,000. Of the carrying trade of the four great southern ports, Charleston, Savannah, Mobile, and New Orleans, American bottoms conveyed in 1821, to the value of $12,500,000; in 1830, $31,000,000; and in 1840 $50,000,000. While foreign vessels had in 1820 $7,000,000; in 1830, $6,000,000; and in 1840 $13,000,000.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE EXCHANGE AT MANCHESTER, ENGLAND.

The Manchester Exchange may be regarded as the parliament-house of the cotton lords; it is their legislative assembly; the affairs of the executive are intrusted to a smaller body, which meets in the Chamber of Commerce, located in a different part of the town. This parliament assembles every Tuesday, and the attendance is greatest about one o'clock, being the hour of "high change." There is, perhaps, no part of the world in which so much is done and so little said in the same space of time. A stranger sees nothing at first but a collection of gentlemen, with thoughtful, intelligent faces, who converse with each other in laconic whispers, supply the defects of words by nods and signs, move noiselessly from one part of the room to another, guided as if by some hidden instinct to the precise person in the crowd with whom they have business to transact. A phrenologist will nowhere meet such a collection of decidedly clever heads. The physiognomist who declared that he could find traces of stupidity in the faces of the wisest philosophers, would be at a loss to find any indication of its presence in the countenances assembled on the exchange at Manchester. Genius appears to be not less rare than folly; the characteristic features of the meeting, collectively and individually, are those of talent in high working order. Whether trade be brisk or dull, "high change" is equally crowded; and the difference of its aspect at the two periods is sufficiently striking. In stirring times, every man on change seems as if he belonged to the community of dancing dervishes, being utterly incapable of remaining for a single second in one place. It is the principle of a Manchester man, that "nought is done while aught remains to do;" let him but have the opportunity, and he will undertake to supply all the markets between China and Peru, and will be exceedingly vexed if he has lost an opportunity of selling some yarn at Japan on his way. When trade is dull, the merchants and factors stand motionless as statues, or move about as slowly as if they followed a funeral; the look of eagerness is exchanged for that of dogged obstinacy; it seems to say—"My mind is made up to lose so much, but I am resolved to lose no more." An increase of sternness and inflexibility accompanies the decline of the Manchester trade, and foreigners declare that the worst time to expect a bargain is a season of distress. "High change" lasts little more than an hour; after the clock has struck two, the meeting gradually melts away, and before three the building is as silent and deserted as one of the catacombs of Egypt.—*England in the Nineteenth Century.*

ENDORSING NOTES.

What (asks the Boston Transcript) can be more vexatious than to become involved by endorsements? You meet with a friend who wishes to get a discount at a bank. It is necessary to have an endorser. He asks you to put your name on the back of his note, merely as a matter of form. Out of kindness or good nature you do it, though you reap not the least benefit by so doing. By and by, the note becomes due. It is not paid, and you are forthwith notified that you, being the endorser, must hand over the needful. There is no remedy. Your name is down in black and white, and you cannot erase it. Can any thing be more provoking? Here you have done a good-natured act of disinterested benevolence, and your pocket must suffer for it. A debt accrued by another must be paid by yourself, and all the satisfaction you receive is that you must "pocket the loss" with the best grace you can. Yet, you can learn a lesson of wisdom from such an event, which is, NEVER to do so any more. Such are the benefits of endorsing, and such will they be till the whole system is abolished.

A MATHEMATICAL PROBLEM.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:

I have seen with much gratification that your pages are open to the discussion of such mathematical problems as need frequent solution in commercial transactions; and I doubt not that proficients in the several departments of business and clerkdom, by the publication of their processes, the simplification of rules, and elucidation of principles, may do much to diminish the labor of computation and ensure accuracy of results, and confer vast benefit upon the mercantile community. I regard all these simple and rapid methods to be as entitled to consideration and application as any labor-saving processes or *machines*, and consider the inventors of them entitled to the gratitude of those whose tasks they would relieve.

I would ask permission through the medium of your pages, to propose to your mathematical contributors for the readiest solution the following problem.

A consignee, having received from various consigners several parcels of the same commodity, of different qualities, and known or appreciable difference in market value, and having sold the whole at an average price, wishes to apportion this price to the several owners, so that each may receive his equitable share. Required the simplest and readiest solution. For instance—

He receives the 1st lot	from	A, of	820	pounds,	gallons,	yards,	or other quantities.
2d	"	B, of	160	do.	do.	do.	do.
3d	"	C, of	1,510	do.	do.	do.	do.
4th	"	D, of	300	do.	do.	do.	do.
5th	"	E, of	940	do.	do.	do.	do.
6th	"	F, of	720	do.	do.	do.	do.
7th	"	G, of	570	do.	do.	do.	do.
		Total,	5,020	do.	do.	do.	do.

Now the first lot is worth one cent per lb. more than the 2d; the 2d is worth ⅛ cent more than the 3d; the 3d ¼ cent more than the 4th; the 4th ¼ cent more than the 5th; the 5th ¼ cent more than the 6th; and the 6th ½ cent more than the 7th. He sells the whole at an average price of 14¾ cents. How shall this price be apportioned among the owners? Questions of this nature, in some mercantile establishments, are of quite frequent occurrence, and a simple and easy solution is much desired. I propose this problem in the hope that some of your contributors may be able to solve it by a process shorter than the usual one, which is extremely tedious and unsatisfactory.

Truly yours, T. D. N.

COST OF MONOPOLIES.

Three pamphlets have recently been published in England, against monopolies. The author of the first, which is entitled "The Many Sacrificed to the Few," estimates that the monopoly of grain, of all kinds, costs the country £21,860,928 a year; of meat, £10,583,333; of butter and cheese, £4,246,666; of timber, £7,000,000; and of tallow, £500,000. Total, £44,790,927 a year! The author of the second of these pamphlets, which is entitled "The Advantages of Monopoly, proved by the effects of the Sugar Monopoly," shows that the nation paid £9,060,794 (exclusive of duty) for its sugar in 1840; and that the same quantity of Brazil sugar would only have cost £3,952,945, leaving the enormous sum of £5,207,049 as the cost of the sugar monopoly to the nation in that one year! The author of the third, entitled "The Preference Interests, or the Miscalled Protective Duties shown to be Public Oppression," shows that the taxes paid exclusively by the landed interest amount to £1,531,915 out of £52,226,959—or equal to one pound for every thirty-three of the whole taxation; while the landed interests of France, Flanders, all Germany, and all Italy, pay at least one half of the taxation of their

respective countries in a direct tax upon land! This author estimates the monopoly of grain to cost the nation £6,000,000 a year; that of butcher's meat, £18,000,000; and that of sugar £4,000,000 a year; besides those of timber, coffee, and other articles.

DECLINE OF THE WHISKEY TRADE.

A most remarkable reduction has taken place in the demand for this article during the past twelve months. The demand was much reduced a year ago; but now it is not half what it was then. The distillers, four or five years since, were running their works night and day, pressed with the demand for whiskey, and consuming rye and corn in immense quantities; at one time four thousand five hundred bushels daily. Now the consumption is less than two thousand bushels daily, and is rapidly diminishing. There is on hand here a stock of twelve thousand barrels of whiskey, and such is the decreased demand, that there is no diminution of stock, notwithstanding the great diminution of supply. The distillers appear to be as much pleased with the change as their fellow-citizens generally. They are now reducing their work as fast as possible, so that for the next crop of coarse grain we presume the demand in this market from the distillers will not exceed one fourth of what it was at the highest point. The falling off cannot be less than a million of bushels for the year. This change cannot but have some effect on the market. Yet, on the other hand, the men who for years back have been guzzling whiskey and leaving their families half starved, will now eat bread and meat, and keep their families well fed. In a multitude of families this happy change has already taken place. The nation will not be made poor by the revolution, but rich; business will not be stagnated, but stimulated by it. No man is vicious and wasteful without causing some mischief to society, and no man is industrious and virtuous without adding something to the common aggregate of general wealth and happiness. Society does not truly thrive upon the vices and dissipations of its members, but upon their morality and general good habits. Vice will be made a mother of trade, as every thing else is; but those who make money by it are likely to contract its pollution, and so sink with those whom they pamper or rob. Virtue makes the man who practices it vigorous and comfortable, and generally gives him some property. As the wealth of a nation is the aggregate of its individual wealth, so the business of a whole people is measured by the aggregate of its industry. The loss of the whiskey business, therefore, will be a gain to the general business and wealth of the country.—*Journal of Commerce.*

FRAUD IN PACKING FLOUR.

A communication has been published in the Utica Democrat charging the millers in various parts of the state of New York with fraud in packing flour. It was stated that 20,000 barrels of flour were sold annually in Utica, the most of which fell short from two to twenty-two pounds per barrel. The Rochester Daily Democrat publishes the following statements from the different flour dealers of Utica, by which it will be seen that the charges of fraud are totally unsupported by facts.

"Dows, Guiteau & Kissam state that they have weighed one barrel from each lot in their store, and give the following as the result of the test:—

	Gross.	*Tare.*	*Nett lbs. Flour.*
Railroad Mills,	222	23	199
Grand Rapid Mills,	211	17	194
H. B. Williams' Mills,	215	18	197
J. & A. Cox's Mills,	216	17	199
Williams & Hitchcock,	214	18	196
J. H. Bennett,	214	19	195
J. Bell & Co.	213	17	196
J. Lathrope,	216	18	196
Juliet Mills,	220	17	203

W. P. Swift & Co. weighed one barrel from each lot in store, with the following result:—

	Gross.	*Tare.*	*Nett lbs. Flour.*
I. H. Beach,	214	18	196
H. Earl,	211	15	196
H. Clinton,	212	17	195
J. Howell,	218	19	199
G. M. & W. Richardson,	217	20	197
L. A. Spalding,	216	19	197
T. Kempshall,	213	17	196
J. Graves,	214	18	196
R. Fisher,	215	18	197
Owasco,	214	18	196

Butler, Farnell & Co. weighed a single barrel from each lot in store, with the following result:—

	Gross.	*Tare.*	*Nett lbs. Flour.*
Medina Mills,	215	19	196
Fitzhugh, Oswego,	219	22	197
Howell & Germain,	214	17	197
Clinton Mills, K. & B.	215	20	195
L. Wright, Oswego,	216	20	196
C. J. Hill, Rochester,	214	17	197
Kempshall, Rochester,	216½	20	196½
Daniels, Union Mills,	216½	19	197½
Stephens, Livonia Mills,	215	18	197
A. Dixson, do. do.	221	20	201
Railroad Brand,	220	23	197

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Notes of a Tour through Turkey, Greece, Egypt, Arabia Petræa, to the Holy Land; including a visit to Athens, Sparta, Delphi, Cairo, Thebes, Mt. Etna, Petra, etc.* By E. Jay Morris. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 253—303. Philadelphia: Carey and Hart. 1842.

A portion of the contents of these well-printed volumes originally appeared in the United States Gazette, under the title of "Memoranda of a Tour in the East." The intervals of the narrative have been filled up by the author, so that it now presents a continuous tour through Greece, Egypt, Arabia Petræa, and a part of Turkey. The minuteness of detail indulged in by Mr. M., will be of some utility to the traveller who pursues the same route, and will enable the reader to form a better opinion of the Egyptian monuments than would be conveyed by a mere record of impressions. The interesting works of Mr. Stephens, and the learned and elaborate travels and researches of Professor Robinson, noticed in a former number of this magazine, would seem sufficient to occupy public attention upon the East, but the route pursued in the narrative before us, and the necessary difference of description, give a fresh interest to the work of our author, and will of course command some degree of public favor. The volumes appear to give a faithful description of what came under the eye of the author, and they are written in an agreeable and easy style.

2.—*Poems and Lyrics.* By William B. Tappan. 12mo. pp. 263. Boston: Crocker & Ruggles. 1842.

This is, we believe, the third series of the poetical productions of the author; and none of the present collection have before been given to the public in a connected form. They are mostly short pieces and of recent date. The chief excellence of Mr Tappan, as a fugitive poet, consists in the moral and religious tendency of his mind, which is infused into every line or stanza that flows from his ready pen. Among the occasional pieces, we notice one on "Bread or Blood," the awful inscription upon some of the banners recently paraded in the provincial towns of England; another "For China," referring to the Chinese war and the opium question; which breathe the true Christian sentiment on these subjects.

3.—*The Life of George Washington.* By JARED SPARKS. 8vo. pp. 562. Boston: Tappan & Dennet. 1842.

This volume furnishes one of the most elegant specimens of the progress of the typographic art recently produced in the United States. The contents of the volume are essentially the same as those of the volume prefixed to Washington's Writings. Designed, however, for readers who may not have access to that work, such additions have been made as would contribute to enhance its value in the form of a separate publication. "The materials for the Life, as well as for the larger works, have been drawn from the manuscripts at Mount Vernon, papers in the public offices of London, Paris, Washington, and all the old thirteen states; and also from the private papers of many of the principal leaders in the revolution. The entire mass of manuscripts left by General Washington, consisting of more than two hundred folio volumes, was in the author's hands ten years." From these materials he aimed to select and combine the most important facts, tending to exhibit, in their true light, the character, actions, and opinions of Washington. It is unquestionably the most authentic and best Life of the immortal patriot that has been, or ever will be published, and it should find a place in every family and school-district library in the country.

4.—*The Works of the Right Rev. Father in God,* JOSEPH BUTLER, D. C. L., late Lord Bishop of Durham. To which is prefixed an account of the character and writings of the author. By SAMUEL HALLIFAX, D. D., late Lord Bishop of Glocester. 8vo. pp. 598. New York: Robert Carter. 1842.

This is, we believe, the first complete American reprint of the works of Bishop Butler. The "Analogy of Religion" has long been a text book in most of our universities and theological schools, and has the consenting praise of all denominations of Christians as the most profound and unanswerable dissertation on natural and revealed religion, in human language. The volume contains, besides the "Analogy," two dissertations on "Personal Identity," and on the "Nature of Virtue," twenty-five discourses on "Human Nature, or man considered as a moral agent," and six sermons preached upon public occasions. The works of Butler, based as they are upon the reasonableness and philosophy of natural and revealed truth, are the property of all sects in Christendom. The present edition is printed from the English plates imported by Mr. Carter, for the express purpose of furnishing a complete and beautiful copy of a favorite theologian, whose profound knowledge, and prodigious strength of mind, are amply displayed in his incomparable writings.

5.—*Mexico in* 1842: *A Description of the Country, its Natural and Political Features; with a sketch of its history, brought down to the present time.* To which is added an account of Texas and Yucatan, and of the Santa Fe Expedition. 18mo. pp. 256. New York: Charles J. Folsom.

The present state of affairs in Mexico and Texas, naturally creates a desire to become acquainted with the physical and political condition of those countries; and it is the object of this work to bring together, from the latest and most authenticated sources, such *data* as may be useful for the better understanding of events in that quarter of the great American continent. It furnishes a mass of information in a comprehensive form, which, if accurate, must prove useful to the emigrant, as well as interesting to all who take an interest in the progress of republicanism. Nearly one hundred pages are devoted to a description of the new republic of Texas, embracing the correspondence of Santa Anna with Bee and Hamilton, and a notice of the Santa Fe expedition.

6.—*The Domestic Circle, or Moral and Social Duties explained and enforced on Scriptural Principles, in a series of discourses.* By the Rev. M. SOBIN. 12mo. pp. 260. New York: Saxton & Miles.

The subjects embraced in this volume are, as may be inferred from the titlepage quoted, decidedly practical. The volume, it is stated by the author, was not originally intended for public inspection, but was composed chiefly to methodize the writer's own views on the several topics embraced in the series. The writer belongs to that numerous and respectable denomination of Christians—the Methodists; but we see little in the book that any serious or well-disposed person can object to on the score of sectarian sentiment. The principal subjects discussed are—the nature and obligation of the marriage compact; the the duties of parents and children, masters and servants; family religion, &c.

7.—*A Practical Treatise on the Law of Contracts not under Seal, and upon the usual Defences to Actions thereon.* By Joseph Chitty, Jun., Esq., of the Middle Temple. Fifth American edition, from the third London edition; corrected, re-arranged, and enlarged by Tompson Chitty, Esq., of the Middle Temple. With notes of American decisions on the law of contracts, to the present time; by J. C. Perkins, Esq. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam. 1842.

The work before us is probably the most able and comprehensive treatise on the law of parol contracts ever written. Its author is so well known, that any mention we can make of him will in no respect add to his high reputation as a lawyer, nor need members of the American Bar be reminded of the usefulness of any legal work proceeding from his pen. Indeed, there are few whose libraries do not contain some of the numerous volumes he has written and compiled, and we venture to say that few of these are of more real importance than the one before us. In addition to the text, which comprises the entire body of the English law upon the subject of unsealed agreements, the margin contains a full and exceedingly copious selection of digested American cases, embracing the most important rules of law upon contracts, in nearly all of the different states in the Union. These are well arranged too, and are alone worth nearly the price of the work. We are gratified to perceive the handsome and permanent manner in which it is got up. The durability of law books, when their high price is considered, is of no little importance, and the publishers we have mentioned have spared no expense in rendering this so. They have also published several other legal works of much importance, and we take pleasure in recommending them to the notice of the members of the American Bar.

8.—*The Duty of the Free States; or Remarks suggested by the case of the Creole.* By William E. Channing. 12mo. Parts 1 and 2—pp. 54 and 93. Boston: William Crosby & Co.

The first part of this tract was devoted to an examination of the affair of the Creole case. Its object, however, says Dr. C., was not so much to determine the merits of a particular case, as to set forth general principles of justice and humanity, which have been too much overlooked in the intercourse of individuals and nations. The same object is kept in view in the second part, which has no reference to the Creole, but is devoted to the consideration of the duties of the free states. Dr. Channing here declares it to be his great aim, in what he has written and now writes, on matters of public interest, to re-unite politics and morality, to bring into harmony the law of the land and the law of God. He views, and justly in our opinion, among the chief causes of the miseries of nations, the divorce which has taken place between politics and morality; and he would give up all hope for a better day, till this breach be healed. We have read the dissertation with deep interest, and earnestly commend it to the attention of the whole American people, as the offspring of a profound mind, deeply penetrated with the love and veneration of humanity and its high destiny.

9.—*The Bankrupt Law of the United States, with an outline of the System; together with the Rules and Forms in Massachusetts, and references to recent decisions.* By P. W. Chandler, one of the Commissioners of Bankruptcy in Massachusetts. 12mo. pp. 108. Boston: James H. Weeks. 1842.

This volume contains a neat and compact edition of the Bankrupt Law of 1840, including the rules and forms which have been adopted in the district of Massachusetts, besides presenting a general outline or exposition of the bankrupt system, introduced by the law, with reference to the more important decisions which have been made upon the act, and which have come before the public in an authentic shape. The act of Congress confers extraordinary powers upon the courts of the United States, and several questions under the law have already been decided upon full consideration; and these decisions are referred to very amply in this volume, "because the time has not yet come for a systematic treatise on the subject; and it was desirable that the work should not be increased beyond its present size."

10.—*Persevere, and You Must Succeed, or The History of Mary Smith.* 18mo. pp. 94. Boston: William Crosby. 1842.

It is the object of this simple tale, to illustrate the sentiment embraced in the titlepage, and the writer has, we think, succeeded to a charm in the endeavor.

11.—*The Life of Wilbur Fisk, D. D.*, First President of the Wesleyan University. By JOHN HOLDICH. 1 vol. 8vo. pp. 456. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Well known and highly esteemed as was the excellent individual whose Life is here given, we doubt if his warmest admirers and most intimate friends have been fully aware of his many excellencies, and the extent of his useful labors; they will learn, for the first time, from this beautiful memoir, how great and good a man he was—at least so it has been with us; we had never appreciated him at half his real worth. Death has consecrated his virtues, and presented his character to us in many interesting lights that wholly escaped our notice while he was living. Professor Holdich was designated by Dr Fisk, a few days only before his decease, to write his Life; and from the conviction, no doubt, that no other person was so well qualified, from personal intimacy, and a perfect knowledge of him, to do entire justice to his character. The confidence was not misplaced—the sacred trust has been nobly discharged; and the result is a work no less just to its subject than creditable to its author, and which will be read with the deepest interest by the community.

12.—*The Great Commission, or The Christian Church Constituted and Charged to Carry the Gospel to the World.* By the Rev. JOHN HARRIS, D. D., author of "Mammon," the "Great Teacher," etc. 12mo. pp. 484. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

To this treatise was awarded the prize of two hundred guineas, offered for the best essay "on the duty, privilege, and encouragement of Christians to send the Gospel to the uninlightened nations of the earth." The competition was understood to be confined within the limits of the United Kingdom. The extension of it to America was subsequently suggested, but the suggestion, say the adjudicators, came too late to admit of its being properly adopted. Another prize of fifty guineas was awarded to Rev. Richard Hamilton, of Leeds. There were forty-two essays received by the committee, differing of course very widely in character and claims, "from some of an inferior order, rising through higher degrees in the scale of merit, to a considerable number of sterling excellence." Appended to the American edition of this treatise, is an introductory essay by Dr. WILLIAMS, of New York. Aside from the interest the work possesses to the friends of missions, its literary claims are of the highest order of excellence, and must place it among the classics in religious literature.

13.—*The Great Awakening.* A History of the Revival of Religion in the time of Edwards and Whitfield. By JOSEPH TRACY. 8vo. pp. 433. Boston: Tappan & Dennet. 1842.

In 1840, public meetings were held in some places, chiefly by those denominated Presbyterians or Calvinists, in commemoration of what Edwards called "The Revival of Religion in New England, in 1740." This "revival" forms the basis of the present work; and we are informed by the author, that opinions concerning it were various and discordant, even among those who entertain similar doctrinal or theological views; some thinking it worthy of unmixed eulogy in public celebrations, others speaking of it with only guarded and qualified commendations, and others doubting whether it should not be mentioned rather with censure than otherwise. The design of Mr. Tracy, in the present work, is to furnish the means of suitably appreciating what he considers the good and the evil of that period of religious history. The volume is enriched with many anecdotes of Whitfield and his times, and is on the whole a well written work on a subject that interests a large portion of the religious community of the present day.

14.—*Wilson's American Ornithology, with Notes by Jardine;* to which is added a synopsis of American Birds, including those described by Bonaparte, Audubon, Nuttall, and Richardson. By T. M. BREWER. 18mo. pp. 746. Boston: Otis, Broaders & Co.

The present edition of Wilson's Ornithology, adapted to general circulation, supplies a want long felt in the United States, and it will doubtless serve to extend the fame of the author, give a wide scope to the influence of his genius, and promote an interest in the study of American ornithology. In accomplishing these objects, Mr. Brewer the American editor has followed the original work of Wilson, adding thereto the copious and valuable Notes of Jardine. The compiler acknowledges his indebtedness to Audubon for the assistance he received from the labors and writings of that illustrious ornithologist. It is neatly printed, and handsomely illustrated with steel engravings.

15.—*Jahr's New Manual of Homœopathic Practice.* Edited, with Annotations, by A. Gerald Hull, M. D. Second American Edition, from the Third, or Paris Edition. 2 vols. 8vo. New York: William Radde.

It seldom falls to our lot to notice a work on Homœopathy, and though we do it with diffidence, it is accompanied also with pleasure. We think it incumbent upon every Physician to give to this subject his mature deliberation, and not to reject it, untried and unknown. The author boldly challenges the test of experience, and is willing to stand or fall by it. And the rapid strides which the new system of medicine has made in the old world gives it a strong claim to the attention and respect of the practitioners of the new. And whilst the infinitesimal doses and sugar globules, have afforded scope to the ingenuity and satire of many, let us not forget that Galileo was confined as a lunatic, and the experiments of our own Franklin were considered too puerile for refutation, but the world has since been convinced that the former was not mad, and the philosophy of the latter will bid defiance to detractors, whilst the lightnings of heaven play harmless around us. In the present edition of this work much has been added by Dr. Hull, and the result of his extensive practice, aided by a refined and discriminating mind, has been carefully noted, and will afford great advantage to those seeking either information or improvement in this branch of science.

16.—*Cincinnati in 1841: its Early Annals and Future Prospects.* By Charles Cist. 12mo. pp. 300. New York: R. Carter.

The author of this volume was employed as one of the marshals for taking the census of 1840, and the volume before us owes its origin to this circumstance. The reports which Mr. C. made in the Cincinnati public prints of his progress in taking the census of that city for 1840, enhanced and illustrated as they are with various observations and incidents springing from his official inquiries, form the basis of this work, and render it at once attractive and useful. We cannot perhaps give a better illustration of the progress of Cincinnati than is exhibited in the following table of the increase of population since 1795, derived from the work:

Year.	*Population.*	*Year.*	*Population.*
1795	500	1829	22,148
1800	750	1830	24,831
1805	960	1831	26,071
1810	2,320	1832	28,014
1813	4,000	1833	27,645
1815	6,000	1835	29,000
1820	9,602	1839	42,500
1824	12,016	1840	46,381
1826	15,540	1841	50,000

17.—*Exchange Tables, designed to furnish the Public with an accurate set of Calculations for Computing Profit and Loss, Interest and Exchange, and to facilitate the Merchant in advancing on Invoice Prices of Foreign Merchandise, and a Convenient Reckoner, and Test of Computations of Small or Great Magnitude.* Also, presenting to the Broker, Banking Institutions, and Public Offices, Discount and Advance Tables, for arbitrating Foreign and Domestic Exchanges, with several Tables of Foreign Moneys, Weights, and Measures. Each compared with the Standard of the United States. By William G. Allyn. 8vo. pp. 180. Buffalo: Saxon & Read, and Robert D. Foy. 1841.

These tables are all expressed in whole and decimal numbers, so as to conform to the Federal currency of the United States; and those for exchange, rebate, premiums, and interest, are written to represent small or large amounts, at pleasure. The arrangement of the work is convenient and in some respects original, and if it is accurately printed, we believe that it will prove a valuable acquisition to those for whom it is designed.

18.—*The American Gardner;* A Treatise on the Situation, Soil, Fencing, and Laying out of Gardens; on the Making and Managing of Hot-beds and Green-houses; and on the Propagation and Cultivation of Vegetables, Herbs, Fruits, and Flowers. By William Cobbett. 18mo. pp. 271. Boston: Saxton & Peirce. 1842.

This is the first American stereotype edition of a very popular treatise. It has justly, we think, been said that "no man in England could make things go like Cobbett." Every part of this treatise is plain, direct, and to the point. Its general use would, we have no doubt, improve the aspect and greatly enhance the comfort and agricultural resources of our country.

19.—*Letters to Young Men Preparing for the Christian Ministry.* By WILLIAM COGSWELL, D. D., Secretary of the American Education Society. 18mo. pp. 236.
20.—*A Help to Professing Christians in Judging their Spiritual State and Growth in Grace.* By the Rev. JOHN BARR. 18mo. pp. 307.
21.—*The Commandment with Promise.* By the author of The Last Day of the Week. 18mo. pp. 235.
22.—*Missionary Sermons and Addresses.* By ELI SMITH, missionary to Syria. 18mo. pp. 229.
23.—*The Telescope, or Sacred Views of Things Past, Present, and to Come.* By SAMUEL MOTT, Jr. 18mo. pp. 180. New York: Saxton & Miles.

These five volumes are, as will be inferred from the titles quoted above, of a theological cast. Most of them are new editions of religious works. The views advanced in the various subjects treated, are of course of the popular "orthodox" theology. They are neatly printed, and are furnished by the enterprising publishers, Messrs. Saxton & Miles, at a very moderate price; thus placing them within the reach of all who have a taste for this kind of reading.

24.—*The Official and other Papers of the late Major-General Alexander Hamilton.* Compiled chiefly from the originals in the possession of Mrs. Hamilton. Vol. 1. 8vo. pp. 498. New York and London: Wiley & Putnam. 1842.

The present volume is the first of a series, designed to embody the political writings of Alexander Hamilton, and it embraces his earlier efforts when only in his fourteenth year, commencing in 1769, and ending in 1780. It consists mainly of papers of a controversial character, and of letters to prominent individuals who were his cotemporaries. Although many of them may be considered merely juvenile productions, they yet bear the strongly marked impress of the mind of their author in maturer years; namely, boldness, vigor, clearness, comprehensiveness, classical elegance, and condensed expression. Many of these papers and letters are now, for the first time, made known to the public. The publication of this series, that may be considered documentary, inasmuch as they comprise the efforts of a powerful and distinguished patriot who was identified with the formation of our government, is a laudable enterprise, and it has found a fitting editor in one of our most eloquent and able clergymen, Dr. Hawks.

COMMERCE AND THE FINE ARTS.

The connexion between the fine arts and commerce has been frequently noticed. A reference to the Italian mercantile communities of Genoa, Venice, and Florence, where the arts were carried to the highest perfection, at the same time that trade was pursued with unexampled vigor, establishes the fact, and proves that the artist has in the merchant a surer dependence for that patronage which is the life-blood of art, than upon the members of any other profession or order of the state. Such being the case, we have good reason to felicitate ourselves upon the prospect of high national excellence. We are a nation of great merchants, and we ought in consequence to be a nation of great artists.

This well-founded expectation we are happy to say is, in our opinion, in a fair way of being realized. If we look over our large list of artists in sculpture and in painting, we shall find an array of men of the highest genius, who will bear comparison with any in the world; men who have already achieved great things and who promise yet more.

We have not space even to enumerate the names of our distinguished artists, but we will take this opportunity to mention one who holds, in a very important department of his art, a most distinguished place. The portraits of Mr. Jerome Thompson are universally acknowledged by all who have examined them, to be unsurpassed in beauty of coloring, anatomical delineation, and correctness of drawing. They are also most faithful likenesses; not mere dull transcripts of the features, but spirited representations of character and sentiment. Mr. Thompson's portraits are well known, and it is therefore needless here to dwell upon their peculiar characteristics. Graceful, pleasing, and correct, they have justly elevated the reputation of the artist to a very high rank in his profession, and insured for him that degree of professional success which is justly due to his merits.

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

THE PROPERTY OF THE NEW-YORK LYCEUM

AUGUST, 1842.

ART. I. COMMERCE OF GREECE.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION OF GREECE FAVORABLE TO MARITIME COMMERCE—COMMERCIAL SPIRIT AND ENTERPRISE OF THE GREEKS, ETC.—MONEY AND COINS—TARIFF OF FOREIGN COINS PERMITTED TO CIRCULATE IN GREECE, WITH THEIR VALUE IN GREEK CURRENCY—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—RATE OF INTEREST AND DISCOUNT—MORTGAGE LAWS—NATIONAL BANK—BANK LAWS—CUSTOMHOUSE ESTABLISHMENT—BONDING SYSTEM—THE TARIFF—IMPORT DUTIES—MARINE INSURANCE COMPANIES, ETC. ETC. ETC.

THE geographical position of Greece must convince the most superficial observer that it is pre-eminently adapted for a maritime state; for placed as she is at an equal distance from the three continents of the Old World, with an almost unlimited number of ports, bays, creeks, and roadsteads, she is enabled to carry on a large and lucrative commerce, and engross the carrying trade of the Mediterranean and Levant, without going far from home. This must appear a natural conclusion to the general observer, but even distinguished statesmen have acknowledged the superior capacity of Greece for extending her commerce and navigation. When Lord Palmerston announced to the House of Commons in 1832 the definitive settlement of the Greek affairs, and demanded its sanction to the guarantee for the new loan, he expressed his conviction, "that the commerce of Greece would in a short time rival that of Italy when in the zenith of her prosperity."

The spirit and enterprise of the Greeks have taken a commercial turn, and in spite of the difficulties they have had to contend with, have been singularly developed. These it was which kept alive the reminiscence of a country annihilated in name, and for ages nearly forgotten by the rest of Europe; and, although their commerce was carried on upon barren rocks, selected as offering the least inducement to their more refined and luxurious conquerors to settle among them, the frugal habits of the people taught them to persevere with patience till the dawn of brighter days, when the sun of liberty should shine forth triumphantly, putting an end to their humiliating condition, and uniting them as a free and independent nation in one of the most beautiful parts of the world.

On the sterile rocks and barren islands to which the Greeks flocked for

an asylum, a population was naturally produced which could find no food at home. Hardy, temperate, and bold, they found themselves obliged to resort to the element that surrounded them for the maintenance of their wives and children; and the education which they received in their early years in buffeting with the winds and waves, conduced to render them intrepid and experienced mariners. The sea became their element, and commerce their daily calling.

Hydra, Spetzia, and Psara were the most important of these commercial insular colonies, which were thus called into being during the wars occasioned by the French revolution, when the flags of France, Spain, and Italy, were banished from the Mediterranean, and those countries themselves deprived of their regular supplies of corn from Egypt and the Black Sea.

A few of the first vessels, after escaping the vigilance of the British blockading squadrons, and repulsing with success the attacks of the Algerine corsairs, returned to their barren islands from Genoa, Marseilles, and Cadiz, having doubled their capital in five months. This was the first impetus given to the enterprise of the islanders, who, in a short time, proceeded to Odessa and Alexandria, where they bought corn at a cheap rate, and frequently realized three times the cost price for their cargoes.

These commercial speculations not only led them to affluence, but tended greatly to increase the daring courage and intrepidity of the Greek sailors; for exposed as they incessantly were to fierce attacks from the corsairs of the Barbary coast, they were obliged, in self-defence, to arm their vessels; and it is a remarkable fact, that in all their numerous rencontres, there is not a single instance on record of their having been taken; on the contrary, the pirates themselves were always either made prisoners, and obliged to walk the plank, or forced to sheer off with damage.

Such a union of commercial enterprise and personal courage, backed by success, had greatly altered their condition in thirty years. These three islands alone possessed upwards of 300 large merchantmen, a part of which were armed with heavy guns. But what particularly distinguished these hardy islanders, was the intelligence or natural sagacity (for scarcely any of them could read or write) with which they formed their speculations, and the uniform honesty and simplicity of their transactions. The crews of the vessels were mostly members of the same family; they received no regular pay, but had a certain share in the speculation, the profits of which, when realized, were divided with the most scrupulous good faith—first the capital, than the interest, (reckoned at three per cent per month,) and, lastly, the profit.

The undertaking was carried into execution by the captain, who had the whole sum at his disposal; nor is there any instance of fraud or embezzlement. This patriarchal honesty was most conspicuous among the Hydriots, among whom such occurrences as the following were frequent. A captain gave notice at Hydra, that he was fitting out his vessel for Odessa, to purchase grain there, and carry it for a market to Leghorn. Such of his countrymen as chose to take part in the undertaking, brought him their bags of money, which were received unopened and uncounted; nor were even receipts made out and signed by the captain, so great was the mutual confidence. It frequently happened that even the names of the parties were not given or asked for, (both parties being perfectly illiterate,) but in no case was there ever cause of complaint. On the return

of the vessel to refit, the parties interested were invited on board, and each received his principal and share of the profit in Spanish dollars, the accounts having been made out with a piece of chalk.

The fortunes thus realized were very considerable. At Hydra, upwards of twenty families possessed a million of dollars each, and several of them had ten or a dozen ships out at the same time. M. Conduriottis was the owner of eighteen vessels of from 250 to 400 tons each. But when the revolution broke out, all these fine vessels were freely offered at the altar of their country's liberty, and the greater part of these large fortunes sacrificed in the same manner, so that at the end of the war, the whole country was reduced to its pristine poverty.

The government of Capodistria which succeeded, was not such as to give an impulse to commercial enterprise, which can alone secure to Greece a permanent rank in the scale of nations. It was no part of the president's subtle policy to encourage trade. Preferring a people devoted to agriculture, on whom he had a better hold, he treated with contempt all those engaged in mercantile pursuits, as not belonging to any political party, and liable to remove from the country, if not pleased with his government, their sole object being, as he expressed himself, to make 100 per cent profit.

Under the fostering care of the present government, the commerce and navigation of the country have made rapid strides. The king is perfectly convinced that commerce must be the main spring of the future wealth and prosperity of the kingdom; and ever since his accession to the throne, without neglecting the other branches of the state, he has kept a most vigilant eye on the development of the national industry, and introduced so many useful measures to revive, improve, and protect it, that many wealthy Greeks who were settled in Russia, Germany, Italy, and Turkey, have been induced to return and establish themselves in their native country.

Money and Coins.—On the arrival of the king, the nominal money of the country was the *Phœnix* and *Lepta*—coins introduced by Capodistria as a substitute for the Turkish piastres, which had been current in Greece for a century and a half, but which had latterly become so deteriorated in value, that whilst in 1816 five piastres were equal to a Spanish dollar, the latter was current in 1833 for twenty-four Turkish piastres. In one year alone (1832) the value of the currency was depreciated twenty per cent, which, of course, caused great inconvenience and severe losses to the commercial part of the community, particularly at Syra, where the mercantile transactions, amounting to two hundred millions of francs per annum, so severe a check was given to trade, as nearly produced a general bankruptcy, the fall in the price of all goods being equivalent to the deterioration of the metallic currency.

Capodistria saw the magnitude of the evil, but had neither the inclination nor the ability to remedy it. He published a decree, it is true, introducing a new monetary system, but was unable to enforce its execution. According to this plan, he took as an unit the sixth part of an Austrian convention dollar, to which he gave the name of Phœnix, and divided it into 100 parts, called lepta. Of these phœnix, which were coined in an old coining machine which had formerly belonged to the knights of Malta, none contained the whole, and the majority only two thirds, of the legal quantity of silver; so that he was obliged to call them in, or rather to stop

their circulation: thus the phœnix only existed on paper and in the government books, whilst the Turkish piastres continued as before the circulating medium for general purposes, and in all private transactions. His copper money was also considerably below the proper standard; and consisting as it did principally of large cumbrous pieces of twenty lepta, it of course formed a bad substitute for the diminutive Turkish coins, which, though of no intrinsic value, were exceedingly portable, and circulated throughout the Levant.

To regulate the currency and place it on a respectable footing, was one of the great problems reserved for the king's government to solve; and it must be admitted that their labors have been eminently successful.

The government took as a basis for the new monetary system the Spanish pillar dollar or colonati, a coin whose intrinsic value is well known all over the world, and which has always been especially current in the Levant. The unit chosen is called the *drachme*, and it is exactly one-sixth part of a Spanish dollar, or about four per cent more than the legal standard value of the phœnix. It is divided, like the phœnix, into 100 lepta, the superiority of the decimal system having been sufficiently proved by the experience of France, America, and other countries.

The only gold coin of Greece is the Otho d'or, which passes for twenty drachmes.

The silver coins are the Greek dollar or five drachme piece, the drachme, the half drachme, and quarter drachme.

The copper coins are pieces of ten, five, two, and one lepta.

The gold and silver coins were struck at Munich and Paris, the copper ones at Athens.

The Mint was established in 1836, and commenced its operation on the 31st August of that year. Although it was originally intended to have coined money of every description, its operations have been confined exclusively to copper, the silver coin in circulation having been found to be made at a cheaper rate at Paris and Munich.

This establishment is under the minister of finance, and consists of a director, a controller, a secretary, and the necessary number of workmen, which varies according to the work to be performed.

Since its commencement in 1836, down to the 31st of December, 1840, the mint has coined in pieces of ten, five, two, and one lepta, to the value of 662,373 drs. 71 leptas, the expenses of which were 411,367 drs., leaving a clear profit of 251,006 drs. 71 leptas.

The expense of coinage, including the metal, is as follows:—

Pieces of	10	lepta cost	4.3555 leptas.
"	5	"	2.7646 "
"	2	"	1.6588 "
"	1	"	1.3444 "
Total	20		10.1233

Thus it appears that the greatest profit arises from pieces of 10 leptas; whilst on those of one lepta there is a loss of about 30 per cent. The profit, however, on the whole shows an average of about 100 per cent.

One of the very first acts of the new government was the publication of a royal ordonnance on the currency, (dated 20th February, 1833,) and

the introduction of the new system, the leading particulars of which are as follow :—

"All former laws on the subject are hereby cancelled, and instead of the phœnix, the new national coin is the drachme, divided into 100 lepta. The drachme contains nine parts of fine silver, and one part of copper. The weight is $4\frac{2}{10}\frac{5}{00}$ grammes of silver, and $\frac{4}{10}\frac{5}{00}$ grammes of copper, making together $4\frac{4}{10}\frac{7}{00}$ grammes. The pieces of five drachmes, as well as the half and quarter drachme pieces, will contain the same proportions of metal and weight. All payments to the state must be made in drachmes and lepta, or those coins mentioned in the list below, and at the prices stipulated therein. The phœnix are no longer a legal tender, but they will be received by the government in payment of customs, taxes, &c., at their intrinsic value, which is ascertained to be 93 new lepta, or they will be exchanged for the new coin. The former copper coins are also called in, and will be exchanged for the new lepta at 80 per cent, or four new lepta will be given for five old. All foreign copper coins are prohibited from being used in private transactions and dealings of individuals amongst themselves, throughout the kingdom."

TARIFF OF FOREIGN GOLD AND SILVER COINS PERMITTED TO CIRCULATE IN GREECE, WITH THEIR VALUE IN GREEK CURRENCY.

GOLD COINS.	*Dr.*	*L.*
French pieces of 20 francs	22	33
British sovereigns	28	12
half do.	14	06
Spanish quadruples 1722—1786	92	60
$\frac{1}{2}$ do.	46	30
$\frac{1}{4}$ do. (pistoles)	23	15
$\frac{1}{8}$ do. ($\frac{1}{2}$ ditto)	11	46
$\frac{1}{16}$ do. ($\frac{1}{4}$ ditto)	5	96
Austrian sovereigns	38	88
do. ducats	13	06
Bavarian do.	13	06
Dutch do.	13	0
Venetian do.	13	24
Portuguese dobras	100	50
moja dobras	50	25

SILVER COINS.	*Dr.*	*L.*
French franc	1	11
5 franc piece	5	58
British crown	6	40
shilling	1	28
sixpence	0	64
Russian silver rouble	4	41
20 Kopic piece	0	99
Spanish pillar dollars	6	0
half do	3	0
German convention	5	78
Bavarian crown	6	36
Austrian zwanzigers	0	95
Tuscan dollars	6	21
Roman scudi	5	97
Neapolitan dollars	5	72
Mexican do.	6	0
Bolivian do.	6	0
Peruvian do.	6	0
Rio de la Plata do.	6	0
Colombian do.	5	78

It is to be observed in the above tariff, that all Turkish coins are excluded ; but notwithstanding this, accounts continued to be kept in piastres and paras, and importations of base Turkish money being still made for the purpose of exchanging them for the genuine Greek coins, which were exported to Turkey to melt down, the government were obliged to take vigorous measures to put a stop to this proceeding, which threatened to drain the kingdom of the new coin, and render its introduction null and void. A royal decree was therefore issued, (dated 29th August, 1833,) prohibiting altogether the use and circulation of Turkish money, and ordering any such coins as should be passed after the 13th October of the

same year to be confiscated, and the delinquents punished besides with a fine of from 100 to 500 drachmes, according to circumstances.

It is no doubt a difficult and somewhat dangerous experiment to change by an arbitrary law the currency of a whole country, sanctioned by custom from time immemorial; but in this case the bold and vigorous measures of the government were crowned with complete success. A few examples were made to show that the government was in earnest; and the Greeks soon learned to keep their accounts in the new coin, and regulate the prices of all articles by the drachme and lepta.

Weights and Measures.—Almost every article in Greece is sold by weight, even wine, oil, spirits, and other fluids, as also a great many other things which in most countries are considered too bulky and inconvenient to be sold by weight, and generally reckoned by the cubic contents, or by the barrel, sack, &c. Thus in Greece firewood, tar, coals, corn, and straw, are sold by weight.

For all these general purposes the unit of weight is the Turkish *oka* (equal to $2\frac{7}{10}\frac{0}{0}$ lbs. avoirdupois,) and subdivided into 400 drachmes, ten of which are consequently equal to 1 oz. avoirdupois. For some of the more bulky and less valuable articles the price is regulated according to the *cantari*, containing 44 okas.

The only measure for length is the peeke, also a Turkish measure, and about twenty-five English inches. This is subdivided into eight roupia.

As the objections which existed to the Turkish monetary system on the score of its being liable to be altered and debased according to the arbitrary will or financial exigencies of the sultan, could not be urged against the weights and measures of Turkey, which were accurately defined and generally used throughout the Levant, the Greek government took no measures to introduce a new system till they year 1836, when several plans were proposed, and at length, after a severe scrutiny by the council of state, the government published the royal decree of the 10th of Oct., 1836, regulating the new weights and measures of the kingdom, as in the following tables:—

LONG MEASURE.

The Peeke, exactly equal to a French Metre.
The Palm, " $\frac{1}{10}$ "
The Inch, " $\frac{1}{100}$ "
The Line, " $\frac{1}{1000}$ "

ROAD MEASURE.

The Stadium=1,000 Peekes, or a French Kilometre.
The Mile=10,000 Peekes, or a French Miriametre.

SQUARE MEASURE.

The Square Peeke=a Square Metre.
The Stremma=a Square Decare.

CUBIC MEASURE.

The Litra=$\frac{1}{1000}$ Cubic Peeke, or a Cubic Decimetre.
(N. B. $1\frac{1}{3}$ Litras=1 Oka, and 1 Oka=$\frac{3}{4}$ Litra.)
The Cotyli=$\frac{1}{10}$ Litra, or a Decilitra.
The Mystron=$\frac{1}{100}$ Litra, or a Centilitre.
The Cubus=$\frac{1}{1000}$ Litra, or a Millilitre.
The Kylo=100 Litra, or a Hectolitre.

WEIGHTS.

I. *For Valuable Articles.*

The Drachm is equal to the specific weight of a Kubus, or $\frac{1}{1000}$ Litra of pure water at a mean temperature.
The Obolus=$\frac{1}{10}$ Drachm, or a Decigramme.
The Grain=$\frac{1}{100}$ Drachm, or a Centigramme.

II. *For Common and General Articles.*

The Mna=1,500 Drachmes, or 1¼ French Kilogrammes.

The royal ordonnance then proceeds to the other particulars respecting the introduction of the new system, and ordains that the use of the old weights and measures is to cease on the 13th of January, 1837, in the communes of Athens, Nauplia, Patras, Hermopolis (Syria,) Tripolitza, Sparta, Missolonghi, Lama, and Chalcis, on the 13th of July of the same year, in the chief towns of the other governments and sub-governments, and after another six months throughout the whole kingdom.

But as this measure was not executed with the spirit and energy which characterized the introduction of the change in the monetary system, it has not as yet been carried into effect. Its failure is chiefly to be attributed to the want of a sufficient number of weights and measures, to be sold to the public at moderate prices, and adjusted and stamped by an officer of the government; and till this is done it will be quite impossible to enforce its execution.

There can be no doubt that the system is a good one; it combines great practical benefits with the facility of calculating by the decimal system, and at the same time it draws Greece closer to the great family of European nations, and breaks a link in the chain of orientalism, by which she had long been fettered. The unit of weight (the Mna) was made equal to 1¼ kilogrammes, in the view of assimilating it as much as possible to the oka, thereby to accustom the public to regulate their transactions of purchase and sale by a new system, without any very great difference in weight, and with the ulterior object of dividing it into 1¼ unit at some future time, when the people should have become habituated to make their calculations according to the decimal system. Besides this, it was at once prudent and politic, in introducing a new scale, to choose the same weights and measures as those of either England, France, or Austria, the countries with which Greece carries on the greatest trade; for then all invoices and accounts of sale made in one country would be better understood in the other, by having the same system of weights and measures; and any impartial observer will see that the complicated system of England cannot assert any claim to be adopted by a new country, whereas the simplicity of the French code is well suited for introduction into another state with which they already carry on an extensive commerce.

Interest and Discount.—Properly speaking, there is no legal rate of interest in Greece, as money is lent at different prices, according to private agreement, the credit of the borrower, and the nature of the security offered. Capodistria fixed the rate of legal interest at 8 per cent per annum, by a special decree on the subject in 1829; but, like most of his laws, it was not enforced, and the price of money has been allowed to find its own level.

During the first few years of the existence of Greece as a kingdom,

money was exceedingly scarce, and was lent at 20 to 24 per cent on mortgage of house and landed property, and 36, and even 50 per cent on personal security. This enormous rate of interest brought a good deal of foreign capital into the kingdom, which was principally expended in building at Nauplia and Athens.

As the speculators were obliged to pay so much interest for the use of the money, they made their tenants pay dearly for the use of their houses; and house rent was as dear at Nauplia and Athens, during the first three or four years, as it is in London, whilst the houses were miserably constructed.

Since the affairs of Greece have assumed a settled aspect; since the currency has been regulated, and the rights and liabilities of mortgage clearly defined, interest of money has fallen to a more moderate price, and may now be quoted at 12 per cent for first description of mortgage, 15 per cent for the second, and 18 to 24 per cent on personal security. Discount of bills, at not more than three months' date, with three signatures of good credit, may be found at Athens, Syra, and Patras, at 1 to 2 per cent per month; in other places, 2 to 3 per cent.

It will naturally be inferred from this that permanent investments of capital in Greece must produce very good interest, where such high rates are paid for temporary loans. Such is the case. Houses at Athens, if well built and in good situations, now pay 25 to 30 per cent, and during the first years, 50 to 60 per cent. Investments in gardens and vineyards produce as much, and arable land lets for half its value every year. In many cases, where people go cautiously and judiciously to work, the profit is still more considerable. Plantations of olive trees and currants are a safe and profitable investment, but require a lapse of some years before they make a return; but at the end of that term the profit is from 100 to 150 per cent per annum.

Mortgage Laws.—One of the most beneficial and successful legislative measures enacted by the king was the law of mortgage or hypothek, organizing the regulations and conditions of mortgage, which was much wanted for the proper security of property, and the facility of obtaining loans on the above security. A provisional law was issued in 1835, which gave to the justices of the peace the competency of keeping a register of mortgages for their respective jurisdictions, as an initiative and preparatory measure for the then contemplated introduction of the definitive law on the subject. In it, it was enacted that mortgages already existing, or which should be made prior to the appearance of the intended law, and inscribed in the registers of mortgage of the justices of the peace, should have priority over those not entered. These registers were merely to contain the following columns,—1. The date of insertion; 2. The Christian and family name of the mortgagee; 3. The name of the mortgager; 4. The particulars of the property mortgaged; 5. The date of the document by which the mortgage was secured; and, 6. The amount of the mortgage.

The definitive law of mortgage is dated Athens, 23d of August, 1836; and the following are the principal regulations contained in it:—

"Hypothek is a legal temporary claim on the immovable property of another person, as a security for the eventual payment of a lawful pecuniary demand, obtained by inscription in the books of mortgage appointed by this law.

"The objects of mortgage can only be, 1. Immovable property, capable

of changing owners in a legal manner, together with the appurtenances considered by law as belonging to it; and, 2. The temporary enjoyment of such property and its appurtenances.

"No mortgage can be granted on the property of a third person without his consent, nor upon that of public bodies or corporations, such as communes, monasteries, or charitable institutions, without the consent and agreement of their legal representatives or official organs, if such exist, and, if not, then of the whole of the members constituting it.

"If the mortgaged estate be deteriorated, or depreciated in value by the carelessness or dishonesty of the mortgager, the mortgagee has the right of demanding a liquidation of his claims before the expiration of the term stipulated, or of laying a complaint against him, in order to hinder further depreciation, or, lastly, to demand other security for the sum advanced.

"The right of mortgage may be obtained in three different modes; viz. 1. *By law.* The state has the right of demanding a mortgage as security for the arrears of taxes, customs-duties, &c. 2. *By verdict of a tribunal,* such as the civil courts, tribunals of commerce, &c.; and, 3. *By private will and consent.*

"The mortgage is made valid by formal inscription into the book of Hypothecations, and must be for a definite and specified sum. It can only be granted on real and actually existing property in the bonâ fide possession of the mortgager, and in no case on expected property.

"Mortgages on the same property take precedence according to chronological order, and if two or more are registered on the same day, they have equal rights, unless the contrary be expressly stated, and with the consent of all parties interested.

"If a mortgage is granted on any building insured at the time in a Greek or foreign insurance company, and such policy be allowed to expire without being renewed, the mortgagee may claim the immediate payment of his demand even before the expiration of the term stipulated. In like manner the mortgagee may claim the amount of his loan out of the sum to be paid by such insurance company in case of fire, provided the amount be not devoted to the rebuilding of such house or other building within one year and a day, and till then he is entitled to demand security for the eventual proper application of such funds.

"All property mortgaged is responsible as far as it goes for the interest of the loan as well as the capital advanced.

"In the principal city of each eparchy, an office for the registration of mortgages is established for the district in which it is situated.

"The registrar of mortgages is bound to keep the books under lock and key, that in his legal absence no one may alter or damage them, and he is personally responsible for their safety and being correctly kept.

"The present law comes into force on the 13th of October, 1836, and the minister of justice is charged with its publication and enforcement."

The regulations respecting the manner in which the books of mortgage are to be kept, together with the manner of examining and proving the correctness and authenticity of the title deeds of property, are published in the *Gov. Gaz.* for 1836., p. 253.

National Bank.—The quantity of arable land lying actually waste from want of capital to cultivate it, is very considerable, and his majesty's government has frequently turned its attention to the establishment of a loan

bank, and entered into negotiations with several foreign capitalists of different countries.

Mr. Wright, the indefatigable head of the late banking firm of Wright & Co., in London, and a devoted Philhellene, was the first who made proposals to the Greek government for establishing a bank in Greece, and as early as the year 1834 sent out an agent to negotiate with the ministry on the subject. He offered to establish a bank at Athens with a capital of a million sterling; to lend three quarters of this sum to the agricultural interest on mortgage at 8 per cent, and to employ the other quarter in discount at 10 per cent; but there were certain conditions respecting the circulation of bank notes and other matters on which they could not agree, and the negotiations were still carried on up to the time of the failure, which was lamented nowhere more than in Greece, where the eyes of the whole nation were turned to him in the fond expectation of seeing their hopes realized by his at length coming to terms with the government, and by the establishment of the bank.

M. Eynard, the banker of Geneva, conjointly with the house of Messrs. Laffitte & Co. of Paris, made also proposals to establish a bank with a capital of 16,000,000 of francs, at 10 per cent interest, but also imposed conditions and demanded privileges which could not well be accepted and granted by the Greek government.

An English house at Smyrna next offered a capital of 500,000*l.* Some bankers at Vienna were also willing to form a bank with a sum of 2,000,000 of florins, and the Greek merchants at Scio proposed to found a bank with a capital of 2,000,000 of Spanish dollars; but owing to the conditions offered, or the rate of interest, none of these proposals could be listened to, and the negotiations were in consequence broken off.

Lastly, the Dutch capitalists, who are the principal holders of the bonds of the two old Greek loans of 1824 and 1825, made also proposals, the conditions of which briefly were,—to advance 12,000,000 of francs to the Greek government at 5 per cent interest, for the purpose of establishing the bank for account of the latter; and out of the profits arising from the concern, by lending out the capital on mortgage at 8 or 10 per cent, to form a sinking fund with which to acknowledge and liquidate one half of the old loans at the price at which they were issued (about 56 per cent,) sinking the interest.

This proposal was likewise rejected; and the government, therefore, came to the resolution of establishing the bank single-handed, interesting themselves for a certain amount as private individuals, and letting it rest on its own merits to find supporters and shareholders among the moneyed men of Europe generally.

In consequence of this, the bank charter, of which the following is a correct translation, appeared in the spring of last year, and the establishment is now being formed.

Bank Law.

We Otho, by the grace of God, &c.;

In consideration of the joint representations of our ministers of the interior and finances, and after having heard the opinion of our council of state, will and ordain as follows:—

Art. 1. A national bank shall be established in the capital of our king-

dom in the form of an anonymous society, (joint stock bank,) which may have branches in other parts of our kingdom.

Art. 2. The capital of the bank is fixed for the present at 5,000,000 of drachmes, which may be increased according to the wants of the country on receiving the sanction of our government.

Art. 3. The capital stock of the bank is divided into 5,000 shares, each of 1,000 drachmes. The shares may be divided into halves and quarters, if required. The government will take at least 1,000 shares; the rest may be taken by Greeks and foreigners without distinction.

Art. 4. The shares will be made out either in the name of the shareholder or the bearer, as may be required, and the liability of the shareholders is limited to the amount of their respective shares.

Art. 5. The bank will be considered constituted as soon as 2,600 shares are subscribed for.

Art. 6. The total number of shareholders of the bank will be represented by a general assembly of the shareholders, or their representatives resident at Athens. The exact number representing the whole body will be fixed in the by-laws, which will be duly published.

Art. 7. The direction of the affairs of the bank will be invested in a committee elected at a general meeting.

Art. 8. In order to ensure the adherence of the committee of management to the statutes and by-laws, a royal commissioner will be appointed by us, who, under the injunction of the strictest secrecy in the discharge of his duty, will have the right of examining the books, papers, and vouchers of the bank; of being present at the private sittings of the board and at general meetings, to learn the real state of affairs, and to convince himself that the business of the bank is carried on conformably to the statutes and regulations. He is also specially enjoined to keep an eye upon, and is personally responsible for the punctual fulfilment of the provisions of this law, as respects the issuing of paper money, which, previous to being put in circulation, must be countersigned by him. In all cases of contravention, the royal commissioner is bound to make the necessary representations to the board of management, and if no notice is taken by them, to report the case to our government, and the measure must remain in suspense till the decision of government be known; but should such decision not be made within thirty days, the bank is at liberty to execute the measure in question or dispute.

Art. 9. The operations of the bank will be—1. Making loans on mortgage and deposite; and, 2. Discounting.

Art. 10. Any other operations than those contained in the last article are prohibited. In the course of time, however, with the consent of the general proprietors and the approbation of government, other branches of business may be introduced.

Art. 11. The bank will make loans in legally circulating specie on mortgage of immoveable property situated within this kingdom, and also on deposits of gold and silver. Four fifths of the capital to be employed in this manner. It is understood that all loans, and the interest on them, are to be calculated and repaid at the pure intrinsic value of the drachme at the time the loan was made.

Art. 12. The annual rate of interest for loans on mortgage and pledges can never exceed 10 per cent.

Art. 13. The bank will not make any loan above one half the value of the

property mortgaged, nor above four fifths of the worth of the pledge. The value of both will be adjusted by agents appointed by the bank, and bound to execute their duty according to the provisions contained in their instructions, which will be published with the by-laws. The expenses attending such valuations, as well as the registration of mortgages, must be borne by the borrowers.

Art. 14. Whenever the value of a mortgaged property is enhanced by the money lent by the bank and expended on it, the bank may make a second loan conformably to the provisions of the last article.

Art. 15. Borrowers are at liberty to make arrangements with the bank for the repayment of their loans, either at stated periods or by way of annuities.

Art. 16. Should any borrower who has made such arrangement with the bank wish notwithstanding to repay his loan previously, either wholly or in part, he may do so upon giving the bank three months' notice of his intention.

Art. 17. The term for loans made on pledges cannot exceed one year, but on the payment of the interest it may be renewed.

Art. 18. As soon as the pledges are deposited with the bank they are considered as security for the sum advanced, whoever may be the owner.

Art. 19. The bank is at liberty to discount bills, and is empowered to employ one fifth of its capital in this manner. Whenever a part of the capital set apart for loans on mortgage and pledges is disposable, it may be employed provisionally in discounting till demands are made for loans upon mortgage or pledge. For this purpose the bank has the right of issuing bank notes payable to the bearer; the amount of which, however, cannot exceed two fifths of the existing capital stock of the bank. As a security to the public for the notes in circulation, it is bound to keep in ready money at least one fourth of the amount issued, to meet the demand for changing the notes; and for the other three fourths, to make over the title-deeds of property mortgaged to the bank for double the value of such bank notes.

Art. 20. The bank notes, whose value must be expressed in Greek currency, cannot be for a less amount than twenty-five drachmes; and the public are not compelled to take them, but the bank and its branches are bound to exchange them on presentation for specie legally circulating in the kingdom, without any difficulty or remarks.

Art. 21. The bank notes must be countersigned by the royal commissioner. Any paper money put in circulation by the bank without the signature of the commissioner must be called in immediately by the bank, which incurs thereby a fine of three times the value of such notes, to be paid into the state treasury. One third of the fines goes to the informer. The bank notes are stamp-free.

Art. 22. The articles 248 and 258 of the Penal Code are applicable in all cases of forgery and uttering forged notes.

Art. 23. The annual rate of interest for discounting cannot exceed 8 per cent; but in cases of public emergency the government may allow the bank to raise the rate of discount provisionally.

Art. 24. The bank will be represented in all lawsuits in our courts of justice by the directors.

Art. 25. When a mortgager refuses to pay the interest or annuity due, the bank has the right to seize his moveable property, and have it sold to

cover its demand. Should he refuse a second time, or have no such moveable property the first time, the loan will be considered as at an end, and the mortgaged property sold by public auction according to the provisions of the civil code.

Art. 26. If persons who borrow of the bank on deposits of pledges neglect to repay the loan at the stated period, such pledges may be sold by public auction by the bank without any further judicial proceedings, but according to the forms marked out in such cases by the existing laws.

Art. 27. Every lawsuit of the bank is considered summary and pressing, and as such takes precedence of all other suits in our courts of justice.

Art. 28. The bank is simply a private institution.

Art. 29. The board of management are bound to lay before the minister of the interior a general view of the state of the affairs of the bank every year.

Art. 30. The existence of the bank is fixed for the period of twenty-five years, provided the government should not be induced to extend it, at the instance of the shareholders.

Art. 31. At its liquidation the bank is bound to deposit in the state treasury cash to the amount of the whole sum of bank notes then in circulation. If after the lapse of three years, and public notice having been given to the holders of notes, they are not all presented, such outstanding ones lose their value, and are considered forfeited to the bank.

Art. 32. Every former bank law is rescinded after the publication of the present one.

Art. 33. Our secretary of state for the interior is charged with the publication and execution of the present law.

Given at Athens, 11th of April, 1841. (Signed) Otho.

The by-laws contain the regulations for the internal management of the bank, the general meetings, mode of transferring shares, &c.

The general meeting is held every year, and is composed of the fifty largest shareholders, or their representatives duly appointed.

The committee of management is composed of a president, vice-president, two ordinary and two supernumerary directors, who are elected every two years by ballot at the general meeting. They may be re-elected after the expiration of the above period. The president and vice-president are not permitted to do any business on their own private account. The directors are at liberty to engage in any commercial undertaking that they think proper. The treasurer, secretary, and clerks, are appointed by the committee of management.

Bills offered to the bank for discount must be furnished with the signatures of three solvent respectable firms, and cannot be for more than at three month's date.

Private Banks.—There are only two in Greece, both discount banks: one of them at Athens, founded by M. Eynard, of Geneva, with a capital of 500,000 francs, for the purpose of discounting local bills with the signatures of three good firms, and for not more than at ninety days' date, at a fixed rate of eight per cent per annum.

The other private bank is established at the Piræus by an English house; it lends money on mortgage, and discounts bills at the price of the day, and according to private agreement between the parties.

Stamps.—Stamps were introduced in the year 1836 as a fiscal measure,

and cannot be said to press heavily on the commercial community, particularly as they have been greatly reduced, as regards bills of exchange and bills of lading.

Chambers of Commerce.—There exist at present but three, viz. at Nauplia, Syra, and Patras; but the royal ordonnance, which is dated 3d of June, 1836, permits others to be formed in such places as may be deemed necessary by the mercantile community.

The chambers of commerce consist each of six ordinary and three extra members, from the first of whom the president and secretary are elected. Any merchant of good reputation and general commercial information, established and resident for at least five years in the place where the chamber is formed, is eligible to become a member. The members are chosen in the same manner as the judges of the tribunals of commerce, under the immediate auspices of the governor of the province, and are elected for the term of three years. Every year one third of the number go out of office in rotation, but may be re-elected. The chamber of commerce may fill up vacancies in their number arising from death or other causes, out of the latest list of persons eligible for the office of judge of the commercial tribunal.

The office of member of the chamber of commerce being considered an honorable distinction, the post is purely honorary, the members receiving no remuneration for their services.

The chambers of commerce are formed for the purpose of imparting to the government their views and advice on mercantile subjects; particularly on the existing obstacles to the development and increase of commerce, and the means best adapted to counteract and remove them; and further, to superintend and watch over the execution of the public works and establishments relating to trade and shipping; such as, for instance, the cleaning, deepening, and improving of harbors, the building of quays, quarantine establishments, canals and railroads, the mercantile navy, commercial schools, customhouse regulations, &c.

The chambers of commerce may meet and deliberate on any question coming within their jurisdiction as often as they think proper, or they may be called upon by government to do so. The meetings are convened by the president after communicating with the governor of the province, who, if able to attend, presides at the meeting; and if not, the chair is taken by the president.

Commercial Tribunals.—These courts are formed for the purpose of taking cognisance of disputes on mercantile subjects, and exist at present only at Nauplia, Patras, and Syra.

The jurisdiction of these courts is thus laid down by the royal decree of the 14th of May, 1835:—

The tribunals of commerce have the power to give judgment in all cases of dispute which have reference to the liabilities, agreements, and contracts of merchants, bankers, and tradesmen; and also in all mercantile affairs, whether the parties are commercial men or not.

The following are considered as mercantile transactions, and belong to the jurisdiction of the court;—Purchases of goods and merchandise to sell again in the raw state, or manufactured; all affairs of factories, commission business, shipping, and sending away goods by land or by sea; all agencies and public contracts; bill-brokers' and banking business; the operations of public banks; the liabilities of merchants and traders amongst

themselves; bills of exchange or remittances of money sent from one place to another, whether the parties belong to the commercial community or not; the building and fitting out of merchant ships, whether coasters or engaged in the foreign trade; the sale of cordage, provisions, and stores; loans on bottomry bonds; insurances on ships and goods; agreements with sailors, &c.

The above tribunals are competent to give a verdict in cases of complaints between principals and clerks, as far as regards their mutual mercantile relations; and, lastly, in all cases of fraudulent bankruptcy.

There is no appeal from the decisions of the commercial courts in the following cases:—1. Where the amount in dispute is under 800 drs.; and 2. Where the parties express their determination to abide by the issue of the verdict.

It may be here observed, that the mercantile laws of Greece are founded on the French commercial code, with but few and trifling alterations.

The Customhouse Establishment is composed of twenty-five chief customhouses, sixty-three under-customs, and thirty-three stations, forming a total of 179 ports. Their business is very considerable, but chiefly confined to the coasting or home trade, free intercourse without payment of duty being now permitted between all the Greek ports, which was not the case under Capodistria, who introduced the unjust and oppressive system that all goods were liable to the same duties at every port, and wherever they came from; and thus not only were the goods and produce of one part of Greece obliged to pay the import duty in another Greek port, but foreign articles, imported originally at Syra for instance, after paying the import duty, and being reshipped perhaps to Navarin, paid duty a second time, and then when reshipped to a smaller port, the same thing occurred, which tended greatly to restrict commerce, and greatly enhance the price of every article to the consumer.

To oppose, however, the greatest possible obstacles to smuggling, the trade with foreign countries is limited to the twenty-five chief customhouse ports; but an exception has latterly been made in favor of some of the second-rate ports. The whole of the customhouse system, however, is still very defective; the facility for smuggling and the inducements to bribery are great, and the control is not sufficiently extensive. A reform has been long talked of, and is much wanted.

Bonding System.—This is also exceedingly bungling and faulty. The original plan introduced by Capodistria was to admit foreign goods to be imported and deposited in transit till their exportation *on the payment of 1 per cent ad valorem on small goods, and 2 per cent on bulky articles, every three months!* This was only repealed in 1836, on the representation of a foreign merchant, who had some articles of merchandise of this description placed in transit at Syra, and which he kept there for three years in expectation of a rise in the market, supposing that the 2 per cent was for the whole period: as he had to pay warehouse rent besides, he was not a little surprised at the lapse of that period to find himself called upon to pay 24 per cent for transit duty, making in addition to 10 per cent in all 34 per cent.

It was then altered as follows:—Small and valuable articles pay 1 per cent ad valorem for *every four months*, if warehoused in government stores. Bulky articles of small value may be deposited in private warehouses under the customhouse lock on payment of 1 per cent ad valorem, if for less

than two years, and 4 per cent if kept in government stores. The following articles come under the latter category :—1. Firewood; timber for house and ship building; wooden articles, as chairs and other furniture, shovels, hoops, sieves, &c. 2. Corn, pulse, almonds in the shell, nuts, valonea, &c. 3. Coils of ropes. 4. Earthenware, dangerous and inflammable articles, and those emitting a disagreeable smell, are to be warehoused in private stores.

The only bonding ports in the kingdom are Nauplia, Patras, Syra, and Piræus, to which Hydra was added in 1835, in consideration of its being declared a free port in 1830 by the provisional government.

The Tariff.—This branch of the national system also requires a complete revision. The tariff at present in force was published by Capodistria, and is dated Nauplia, 11th of April, 1830. The import duties are based on the principle of 10 per cent, and the exports at 6 per cent. The following are the import and export duties on those articles specified in the tariff. All others pay 10 and 6 per cent respectively.

IMPORT DUTIES.

Articles.		*Duty.* Drs.	Lep.
Alum	per oka	2	80
Bottles	per 100	2	0
Biscuits	per cantar	2	0
Beer, in bottles	per dozen	1	0
do in casks	per oka	0	15
Books		free.	
Butter, Black Sea	do	0	15
European	do	0	30
Coffe, Mocha	do	0	40
other sorts	do	0	25
Cloves	do	1	0
Camphor	do	1	20
Cordage, tarred	per cantar	4	0
not tarred	do	5	20
Chocolate	per oka	0	60
Cheese, Eastern	do	0	12
European	do	0	20
Corks	per cantar	2	80
Caviar	per oka	0	20
Cattle, horned		free.	
Horses for agricultural purposes—Mules—Asses		do	
Dates	per cantar	1	0
Elephants' teeth	per oka	0	80
Flax	do	0	20
Galls, black	do	0	30
green	do	0	10
Gum Arabic	do	0	60
Gunpowder	do	0	30
Grain :—			
Wheat	per kilo	0	15
Barley and rye	do	0	6
Turkish corn (maize)	do	0	10

Articles.		*Duty.* Drs.	Lep.
Hams and sausages	per oka	0	30
Hats, best	each	3	20
second quality	do	2	0
Hemp	per oka	0	10
Indigo	do	3	60
Implements (agricultural and technical)	ad val.	3 per cent.	
Lead pencils	per 1000	1	20
Metals:—			
Iron, in sheets	per cantar	1	60
bar and hoop	do	2	0
Tin plates	per box	6	0
Silver, in bars and unstamped		free.	
Tin	per cantar	14	0
Quicksilver	per oka	1	20
Lead	per cantar	2	0
White lead	do	5	20
Brass	do	8	0
Brass in sheets	per oka	0	60
Copper	do	0	40
Steel	per cantar	3	60
Macaroni	per oka	0	12
Nails	per cantar	4	80
Nutmegs	per oka	2	0
Opium	do	5	20
Olives	do	0	4
Onions	per cantar	0	40
Pepper	per oka	0	25
Pimento	do	0	40
Pitch	per cantar	0	80
Rice	per oka	0	4
Sesame seed	do	0	6
Saltpetre	do	0	15
Spirits of wine	do	0	15
Stockfish	per cantar	2	40
Salt		prohibited.	
Saffron	per oka	1	40
Sugar loaves	do	0	30
crushed	do	0	20
raw	do	0	12
Shot	do	0	10
Salt fish	do	0	15
Silk, raw	do	7	20
Snuff	do	0	80
Segars	do	2	40
Tar	do	1	20
Tongues, smoked	per dozen	0	15
Tobacco, raw	per oka	1	0
Tea, black	do	1	60
green	do	3	20
Tiles	per 1000	2	20

Articles.		*Duty.* Drs. Lep.
Timber for shipbuilding	ad. val.	5 per cent.
for houses	do	7 do
Vermicelli	per oka	0 12
Vitriol	per cantar	1 20
Wax, yellow	per oka	0 40
Wool, unwashed	per cantar	3 20
washed	do	5 0
Wine, common	per barrel	4 0
fine	per oka	0 60

EXPORT DUTIES.

Articles.		*Duty.* Drs. Lep.
Bristles		free.
Cattle:—		
Buffaloes	per head	12 0
Oxen	do	10 0
Cows	do	6 0
Calves	do	4 0
Mules	do	6 0
Horses of burden	do	6 0
Sheep	do	0 60
Lambs	do	0 30
Silver, uncoined	per drachm	0 5
Sponge, virgin, washed	per oka	0 60
" unwashed	do	0 40
ordinary, washed	do	0 20
" unwashed	do	0 10

Marine Insurance Companies.—Several of these establishments have been formed as joint stock companies; the principal of which are—

The Greek Insurance Company, established at Syra in . . 1837.
The Company of Friends of Insurance . . . . 1838.
The Hermes (Mercury) . . . . . 1838.
The Achaian Marine Insurance Company, Patras . . . 1836.

The only foreign insurance company that has an agency in Greece is the Trieste Company, called the "Adriatic Union of Security," which has an establishment at Athens.

Foreign Trade.—The commerce of Greece with foreign countries has greatly increased within the last five years, and is by no means inconsiderable.

At Constantinople there are between 11,000 and 12,000 Greek subjects (exclusive of the Rayahs or Greeks subject to the Porte,) partly engaged in commerce, and partly in exercising different trades; whilst the residents of all other powers together do not amount to above 5,000.

The number of Greek subjects who leave the country furnished with regular passports from the foreign office is about 2,000 every year. The crews of the Greek vessels engaged in the foreign trade amount to about 10,000; and we may safely calculate that at least 3,000 other persons go to Turkey, Asia Minor, Egypt, and the Barbary coast, where passports are not required; making on the whole about 15,000 annually.

The following table, taken from the reports of the several Greek consuls at the undermentioned places, shows the approximative value of the imports and exports in Greek bottoms at the respective ports for the year 1840:—

Ports.	*Imports.* Drs.	*Exports.* Drs.
Constantinople	20,000,000	12,000,000
Smyrna	10,520,000	2,800,000
Volo	2,000,000	1,500,000
Zante	2,200,000	2,450,000
Trieste	15,000,000	11,500,000
Tenedos	500,000	200,000
Salonica	150,000	200,000
Galatz	4,100,000	2,100,000
Odessa	2,000,000	5,000,000
Canea	1,300,000	1,100,000
Heraclium	1,400,000	1,800,000
Marseilles	6,000,000	15,000,000
Leghorn	2,560,000	6,000,000
Rhodes	2,000,000	1,500,000
Beyrout	500,000	360,000
Enos	150,000	200,000
Prevesa	200,000	180,000
Corfu	2,200,000	1,100,000
Venice	3,000,000	7,500,000
Genoa	1,000,000	3,000,000
Tunis	750,000	300,000
Gibraltar	2,000,000	4,000,000
Alexandria	10,000,000	12,000,000
Totals	89,530,000	91,790,000

The value of the foreign trade in Greek vessels at the other ports where there are consuls and vice-consuls is not reported; though at some of them, such as Malta, the Dardanelles, Damietta, Tripolis, and Algiers, it is considerable.

Tables showing the extent of Commercial Traffic carried on between the ports of Greece and Trieste respectively, from the years 1835 *to* 1840, *both inclusive.*

No. 1. EXPORTS FROM GREECE TO TRIESTE.

Articles.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.
Madder	495	285	201	447	1,027	1,068
Wax	152	297	589	339	480	189
Cotton	669	2,454	4,155	4,985	8,199	722
Cheese	1,208	1,709	4,012	1,590	1,109	161
Figs	23,234	15,101	17,005	12,827	20,400	26,435
Currants	23,432	8,691	16,500	34,437	50,031	25,530
Wool	2,262	7,335	922	7,026	25,910	5,090
Olive oil	5,200	6,655	7,734	6	313	2,912
Skins	676	939	471	757	2,870	800
Linseed	1,899	872	8,555	5,613	5,930	1,784
Silk, raw	151	414	269	297	660	491
Sponge	1,942	760	1,429	2,640	3,636	4,021
Valonea	18,234	39,793	19,372	6,752	22,600	44,528
Tobacco		54	203	2,779	905	4,016

No. 2. IMPORTATIONS INTO GREECE FROM TRIESTE.

Articles.		1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Steel	cwt.	595	1,066	1,070	510	922	976
Coffee	do	3,502	4,947	5,780	11,776	10,772	10,869
Hemp	do	490	469	627	705	1,069	1,047
Paper	cases	396	715	1,609	185	1,082	596
Ironmongery	do	211	177	119	60	270	295
Nails	casks	3,228	1,771	1,210	594	1,799	2,336
Drugs	cases	174	183	133	312	1,047	568
Flour	cwt.	773	684	1,916	245	1,346	1,488
Iron, raw	do	4,794	1,654	3,067	3,951	2,279	2,155
Timber	No.	105,675	35,855	31,356	25,147	53,903	63,846
Planks	do	498,188	312,300	426,593	67,302	1,267,851	1,480,379
Manufactures,	packages	1,109	813	2,442	1,284	1,960	1,280
Glassware	crates	963	1,092	988	297	1,355	1,071
Earthenware	do	97	228	189	140	234	78
Salt fish	cwt	1,514	2,148	4,140	762		3,852
Rice	do	2,570	1,499	1,614	990	3,216	1,506
Sugar, raw	do	172	1,530				
refined	do	264	66	1,242	1,039	1,156	2,006
Leather	do	994	680	1,543	3,593	2,016	2,449

The principal articles exported to other countries and imported into Greece, are the following:—

Exports:—Currants, corn, cotton, cheese, figs, honey, lemons, madder, oil, skins, salt, silk, sesame seed, sponges, tobacco, vermilion, wool, and wine.

Imports:—Live animals, butter, corn, caviar, coffee, drugs and medicines, earthenware, flour, glassware, cutlery, gunpowder, hides, hemp, indigo, macaroni, metals, manufactures generally, nails, paper, rice, salt fish, spices, spirits, soda, sugar, soap, and timber.

Treaties of Commerce, &c.—The following is a list of the different treaties existing between Greece and other nations, with the date of the year in which they were concluded.

Nature of Treaty.	*Country with which made.*	*Date.*
Friendship and Alliance.	Bavaria.	1833.
Commerce and Navigation.	Austria.	1835.
	Great Britain.	1838.
	Sweden and Norway.	1838.
	United States of America.	1838.
	Prussia.	1839.
Right of free Emigration.	Wurtemberg.	1834.
	Baden.	1835.
	Two Sicilies.	1838.
	Bavaria.	1836.
	Saxony.	1836.
	Hanover.	1835.
	Switzerland.	1837.
	Sardinia.	1839.
	Prussia.	1839.
	Naples.	1837.
	Sweden.	1838.

TREATIES OF COMMERCE, ETC.—*Continued.*

Nature of Treaty.	*Country with which made.*	*Date.*
Reciprocity of Port Charges.	Sweden and Norway.	1835.
	Papal Dominions.	1834.
	Ionian Republic.	1835.
	Tuscany.	1835.
	Holland.	1835.
	Austria.	1835.
	Russia.	1835.
	Denmark.	1835.
	Spain.	1834.
	United States of America.	1837.
	Hanover.	1836.
	Bremen.	1835.
	Lubeck.	1835.
	Hamburg.	1836.
Post-Office Treaties.	France.	1838.
	Austria.	1834.

Greek Consulates in Foreign Countries.—There are 11 consuls-general, 38 consuls, and 29 vice-consuls;—in all 78.

Consulates-General:—At Odessa, Vienna, Stockholm, Lisbon, London, Paris, Amsterdam, Leghorn, Naples, Alexandria, and Bucharest.

Consulates:—Amsterdam, Taganrok, Moscow, Hamburg, Bremen, Leipzig, Lubeck, Cologne, Mayence, Copenhagen, Barcelona, Balearic Islands, Cadiz, Malaga, Marseilles, Trieste, Ancona, Civita Vecchia, Venice, Genoa, Messina, Liverpool, Belfast, Malta, Dublin, Boston, New York, Tauris, Smyrna, Candia, Dardanelles, Beyrout, Salonica, Prevesa, Cairo, Damietta, Jassy, and Tunis.

Vice-Consulates:—Ismaël, Semlin, Toulon, Algiers, Algesira, Plymouth, Falmouth, Gibraltar, Brindisi, Leghorn, Cagliari, Naples, Porto-Ferraro, Palermo, Nice, Galatz, Ibraila, Adrianople, Enos, Jaffa, Tripolis, Volo, Rhodes, Heraclium, Kydonia, Jannina, Cephalonia, Corfu, and Zante.

GENERAL TABLE OF THE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF GREECE IN 1839.

Description of Goods.	*Value of Imports.*		*Value of Exports.*	
	Drs.	Lep.	Drs.	Lep.
Almonds	17,397	0	1,021	55
Aniseed	4,397	0	964	18
Animals (live) for food	255,132	0	268,562	50
for agriculture	791,680	0	355,384	50
Butter	63,637	50	5,098	52
Brooms	125	20		
Citrons	.	.	16,065	20
Cochenille	1,109	0		
Cotton	8,842	20	68,087	80
Curds	227			
Chestnuts	40,215	55	2,749	0
Candles (Tallow)	8,044	60		

GENERAL TABLE OF THE IMPORTS, ETC.—*Continued.*

Description of Goods.	*Value of Imports.*		*Value of Exports.*	
	Drs.	Lep.	Drs.	Lep.
Corn (all descriptions)	2,979,165	20	304,649	0
Chocolate	1,427	0		
Cheese	74,114	7	86,814	94
Cork	2,216	0		
Caviar	172,168	0		
Coffee	298,451	0		
Chalva	94,168	0		
Drugs and medicines	51,357	45		
Dates	9,827	0		
Earthenware	86,450	17		
Flour	24,945	25		
Fruit, fresh	51,211	22	2,327	76
dried (raisins and currants)	117,903	70	2,670,518	69
(figs)	15,123	0	346,490	0
walnuts	20,161	25	748	40
Fish, fresh	29,843	25		
salted	459,619	56		
rose	5,013	0		
Galls	776	50	1,558	50
Glass ware	138,372	40		
Gunpowder	31,611	0		
Hams	25,267	0		
Hats	18,681	70		
Hemp	296	0	5,027	28
Honey	1,831	0	34,363	19
Incense	15,781	80		
Indigo	54,795	50		
Liquors (wine, beer, and spirits)	458,647	86	662,485	0
Lemons	3,818	0	70,181	0
Macaroni, Vermicelli, &c.	26,680	10	409	80
Madder			37,673	0
Metals	968,214	0		
Mastic	17,615	0		
Manufactures of silk	213,520	0	13,654	0
wool	1,229,758	85	7,391	0
cotton	3,611,939	29	43,995	0
straw	70,961	40		
wood	157,777	17	327	80
linen	136,184	55		
gold and silver thread	14,870	0		
leather	31,495	50		
metal	265,608	77	4,310	0
bone	20,724	45		
sundries	488,884	42	139,414	20
Nuts, hazel	16,127	0		
pistachio	112,205	0	1,276	36

GENERAL TABLE OF THE IMPORTS, ETC.—*Continued.*

Description of Goods.	*Value of Imports.*		*Value of Exports.*	
	Drs.	Lep.	Drs.	Lep.
Nails	240,390	32		
Onions	14,213	80	11,609	50
Oranges	24,710	14	1,669	48
Olives	43,589	50	6,295	6
Olive oil	141,544	30	409,984	26
Paper	182,746	0		
Potatoes	10,061	0	285	39
Perfumery	70,927	0		
Pulse of all descriptions	99,591	81	12,276	14
Pitch	9,304	97	78	52
Preserves	5,796	0	746	0
Pearl barley	621	0		
Rice	407,839	84		
Skins and hides	829,734	38	52,223	30
Sulphur	9,818	20		
Soda	25,986	70		
Salt			20,006	0
Sugar	721,827	65		
Silk, raw	924	50	910,139	0
Soap	419,309	91	1,557	50
Salep	160	0		
Sesame	2,736	0	15,996	35
Sponge	6,121	50	178,539	0
Sundries	140,508	25	10,160	75
Tallow, raw	4,930	0	40	0
Tow	19,870	0	6,612	0
Tar	2,968	25	5,192	94
Tobacco	138,079	2	14,318	80
Vermilion			159,268	0
Wool, sheep's	905	80	205,758	59
Wood for shipbuilding	346,822	13	3,538	50
dyes	135,152	25		
houses	769,563	52	40,059	87
fire	70,346	10	11,876	0
Totals	18,599,167	52	7,330,438	94

Table showing the value (in drachmes) of the Annual Imports, Exports, Transit, and Coasting Trade of the Kingdom of Greece for the years 1833 *to* 1840 *inclusive.*

Year.	*Imports.*	*Exports.*	*Transit.*	*Coasting Trade.*	*Total.*
1833	12,267,773	5,534,219	6,007,310	3,000,000	26,809,302
1834	16,438,363	6,772,110	8,500,000	4,000,000	35,710,473
1835	16,179,145	9,779,900	11,312,754	7,086,988	44,358,787
1836	15,905,389	12,803,222	13,191,549	6,327,014	48,227,174
1837	18,374,617	7,522,307	25,091,075	7,121,563	58,109,562
1838	21,751,283	6,739,770	31,384,630	8,435,450	68,311,133
1839	18,599,167	7,330,438	28,325,053	9,352,758	63,607,416
1840	20,270,004	8,748,477	41,663,195	8,124,465	78,806,141

Customs.—The customhouse establishment was organized on its present footing, by the royal ordonnance of the 30th of September, 1836; the system pursued till then being that which was introduced by Capodistria in 1829, and continued by the regency, with a few trifling modifications.

The line of coast and the islands are divided into twenty-five customhouse districts, of which five are of the first class, seven of the second, and thirteen of the third. Each of these is subdivided into under customhouses, customhouse stations, and coast-guard stations.

There are twenty-five head customhouses, sixty-three under customhouses, thirty-three customhouse stations, and fifty-eight coast-guard stations, making together one hundred and seventy-nine ports with customhouse authorities.

Free intercourse is permitted between all the respective ports for goods and merchandise, grain, and cattle, either the produce of the country, or of foreign growth or manufacture, if originally imported at a legal port, and if the duty has been paid at the customhouse, which will appear from the manifest and clearance of the vessel.

The principal customhouses are under the immediate control of the minister of finance, from whom they receive their instructions, and to whom all reports and communications are made. The under customhouses, &c. are under the control of the principal one in each district.

The chief customhouses are divided into two main districts; twelve are in the eastern, and thirteen in the western district, for each of which a chief inspector of customs is appointed, with the rank and pay of a ministerial assessor; the seat of the former is at Syra, that of the latter at Patras. Their duty is to inspect the books and vouchers of the customhouses in their districts.

The officers of the customs are entitled to wear the uniform of the civil servants of the crown, as contained in the decree of the 18th of April, 1833, in the analogous grades, and with the same distinctive embroidery, epaulettes, &c.; and all customhouse functionaries are permitted, *ex officio*, to carry fire-arms, without the usual certificate from the police.

Art. II.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES, IN FIFTY YEARS,

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CENSUS OF 1820, BEING THE FOURTH DECENNIAL ENUMERATION UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

This census was the first which made any discrimination in the colored part of the population, either as to sex or age. It distributed the males and females, both of the free colored persons and slaves, under the four following divisions, viz: those who were under fourteen; who were fourteen and under twenty-six; who were twenty-six and under forty-five; and who were forty-five and upwards.

It made no change in the distribution of the whites, except to add a column for those males who were between the ages of sixteen and eighteen.

The result may be seen in the four following tables.

TABLE I.—SHOWING THE WHITE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1ST OF AUGUST, 1820.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	MALES.						TOTAL.	FEMALES.						TOTAL.
	Under 10.	10 *and under* 16.	*Between* 16 *and* 18	16 *and under* 26	26 *and under* 45.	45 *and upwards.*		*Under* 10.	10 *and under* 16.	16 *and under* 26.	26 *and under* 45.	45 *and upwards.*	
Maine	49,217	24,528	7,146	28,530	27,742	19,178	149,195	46,565	23,982	30,823	28,248	18,527	148,145
New Hampshire	35,466	19,672	5,529	22,703	22,956	18,413	119,210	34,599	18,899	24,806	25,797	19,925	124,026
Vermont	35,708	19,241	5,860	24,137	22,035	16,189	117,310	35,327	18,577	24,713	23,683	15,236	117,536
Massachusetts	70,993	38,573	10,912	49,506	54,414	38,668	252,154	69,260	38,308	52,805	57,721	46,171	264,265
Rhode Island	11,530	5,860	1,767	7,596	7,618	5,888	38,492	10,917	5,769	8,407	8,671	7,157	40,921
Connecticut	36,848	20,682	6,284	25,731	25,632	21,814	130,707	35,289	19,833	27,205	29,069	25,078	136,454
New York	222,608	104,297	29,598	132,733	138,634	81,259	679,551	216,513	101,904	132,492	129,899	72,385	653,193
New Jersey	42,055	19,970	5,956	24,639	24,418	18,537	129,619	39,921	19,504	25,637	24,693	18,035	137,790
Pennsylvania	175,381	77,050	25,901	102,550	97,144	64,493	516,618	166,710	78,425	101,404	94,345	59,592	500,476
Delaware	9,071	4,448	1,719	5,516	5,607	3,263	27,905	8,657	4,311	5,573	5,537	3,299	27,377
Maryland	41,511	18,952	6,261	26,404	27,916	16,960	131,743	39,454	19,578	27,293	26,347	15,807	128,479
Dis't of Columbia	3,276	1,540	550	2,171	2,893	1,291	11,171	3,319	1,640	2,518	2,615	1,351	11,443
Virginia	103,963	45,762	13,148	58,863	57,898	38,245	304,731	98,485	45,766	62,411	55,995	35,686	298,343
North Carolina	75,488	32,912	9,748	39,527	36,264	25,453	209,644	70,998	33,101	42,253	38,069	25,135	209,556
South Carolina	42,658	18,258	5,877	23,984	22,115	13,919	120,934	39,891	18,741	23,662	20,939	13,273	116,506
Georgia	35,444	14,743	4,215	19,483	17,874	10,869	98,404	33,177	14,937	18,642	15,365	9,041	91,162
Kentucky	83,050	36,004	10,383	41,328	38,178	25,136	223,696	77,641	35,120	41,905	35,483	20,799	210,948
Tennessee	67,746	28,497	7,472	31,028	27,549	18,780	173,600	63,419	27,770	31,569	27,931	15,638	166,327
Ohio	111,683	45,858	12,607	57,008	54,432	31,626	300,607	106,036	44,106	53,337	48,797	23,689	275,965
Indiana	29,629	11,454	3,270	14,428	14,072	7,066	76,649	27,684	10,707	13,635	12,009	5,074	69,109
Mississippi	8,104	3,216	1,052	4,560	5,110	2,296	23,286	7,220	3,176	3,791	3,107	1,596	18,890
Illinois	10,554	4,227	1,313	6,224	5,755	2,641	29,401	9,558	4,018	4,842	4,166	1,803	24,987
Louisiana	11,817	4,710	2,105	8,747	11,236	4,822	41,332	11,062	5,484	6,708	5,695	3,102	32,051
Missouri	10,677	4,256	1,301	6,537	6,622	2,909	31,001	9,766	3,978	5,076	4,265	1,902	24,987
Alabama *	17,103	6,281	1,750	9,336	9,055	4,064	51,750	15,810	6,289	7,993	6,625	2,895	44,495
Michigan	1,220	559	152	1,334	1,661	609	5,383	1,130	525	692	595	266	3,208
Arkansas	2,420	985	329	1,427	1,453	686	6,971	2,142	927	1,179	934	426	5,608
TOTAL	1,345,220	612,535	182,205	776,030	766,283	495,065	4,001,064	1,280,570	605,375	781,371	736,600	462,888	3,871,647

* See note to table IV.

TABLE II.—SHOWING THE FREE COLORED POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1ST OF AUGUST, 1850.

STATES AND TERRITORIES	MALES.					FEMALES.				
	Under 14	14 *and under* 26.	26 *and under* 45.	45 *and upwards.*	TOTAL.	*Under* 14.	14 *and under* 26.	26 *and under* 45.	45 *and upwards.*	TOTAL.
Maine	170	86	91	90	437	168	115	126	83	492
New Hampshire	97	101	85	89	372	109	99	106	100	414
Vermont	152	113	93	80	438	170	125	97	73	465
Massachusetts	1,085	680	836	647	3,308	969	778	904	781	3,432
Rhode Island	577	388	343	279	1,587	550	523	465	429	1,967
Connecticut	1,432	911	865	629	3,837	1,421	961	950	675	4,007
New York	5,197	3,011	3,347	1,903	13,458	5,342	4,195	4,126	2,158	15,821
New Jersey	3,328	1,116	1,090	882	6,416	3,093	1,198	987	766	6,044
Pennsylvania	5,666	3,348	3,890	1,900	14,804	5,465	4,063	4,073	1,797	15,398
Delaware	2,812	1,317	1,207	1,143	6,479	2,742	1,379	1,307	1,051	6,479
Maryland	7,829	3,593	3,756	3,568	18,746	7,857	4,461	4,752	3,914	20,984
District of Columbia	756	338	349	288	1,731	828	549	548	392	2,317
Virginia	8,145	3,884	3,135	2,685	17,849	7,640	4,545	3,772	3,083	19,040
North Carolina	3,415	1,728	1,109	1,143	7,395	3,129	1,737	1,345	1,006	7,217
South Carolina	1,376	732	647	541	3,296	1,223	836	800	671	3,530
Georgia	320	195	180	146	851	349	209	195	159	912
Kentucky	585	281	284	343	1,493	488	254	244	280	1,266
Tennessee	700	323	240	238	1,501	532	297	224	173	1,226
Ohio	1,057	544	538	315	2,454	994	549	466	260	2,269
Indiana	275	146	141	92	654	251	137	120	68	576
Mississippi	87	62	52	38	239	84	52	44	39	219
Illinois	86	71	55	25	237	104	50	44	22	220
Louisiana	2,248	876	915	470	4,509	2,209	1,557	1,377	824	5,967
Missouri	93	40	36	17	186	62	39	34	26	161
Alabama*	118	83	68	49	357	91	69	58	35	276
Michigan	35	32	27	11	105	20	20	16	13	69
Arkansas	18	13	11	2	44	8	3	1	3	15
TOTAL	47,659	24,012	23,450	17,613	112,783	45,898	28,850	27,181	18,861	120,783

* See note to table IV.

TABLE III.—SHOWING THE SLAVE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1ST OF AUGUST, 1820.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	MALES.					FEMALES.				
	Under 14.	14 *and under* 26.	26 *and under* 45.	45 *and upwards.*	TOTAL.	*Under* 14.	14 *and under* 26.	26 *and under* 45.	45 *and upwards.*	TOTAL.
Maine	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Hampshire	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Vermont	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Massachusetts	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Rhode Island	2	1	1	14	18	2	3	3	22	30
Connecticut	.....	.....	13	24	37	.....	.....	13	47	60
New York	1,861	1,624	932	671	5,088	1,544	1,579	1,065	812	5,000
New Jersey	860	1,583	917	628	3,988	592	1,285	1,036	656	3,569
Pennsylvania	1	1	18	65	85	3	2	36	85	126
Delaware	1,244	839	337	135	2,555	979	611	233	131	1,954
Maryland	24,736	14,846	10,718	6,073	56,373	22,740	13,403	9,362	5,520	51,025
District of Columbia	1,245	775	671	316	3,007	1,311	990	696	373	3,370
Virginia	96,881	52,791	45,438	23,164	218,274	92,468	51,972	40,691	21,748	206,879
North Carolina	48,914	27,511	19,395	10,731	106,551	45,055	25,663	18,326	9,422	98,466
South Carolina	51,738	32,324	31,641	14,769	130,472	49,694	33,991	30,461	13,857	128,003
Georgia	33,204	19,541	16,249	6,922	75,916	32,141	19,879	15,631	6,089	73,740
Kentucky	31,469	17,132	10,944	4,369	63,914	29,231	17,407	11,801	4,379	62,818
Tennessee	20,314	10,078	6,529	2,826	39,747	19,251	11,153	7,192	2,764	40,360
Ohio	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indiana	43	37	11	7	98	40	21	21	10	92
Mississippi	7,016	4,600	4,061	1,173	16,850	6,677	4,807	3,506	974	15,964
Illinois	170	173	133	66	548	139	128	71	31	369
Louisiana	11,675	10,876	10,520	3,495	36,566	10,763	11,672	7,758	2,305	32,498
Missouri	2,491	1,511	852	487	5,341	2,281	1,461	855	284	4,881
Alabama *	9,665	6,563	4,200	1,352	24,717	9,140	6,141	3,779	1,039	22,722
Michigan	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Arkansas	323	276	143	78	820	293	268	157	79	797
TOTAL	343,852	203,088	163,723	77,365	790,965	324,344	202,336	152,693	70,637	752,723

* See note to table IV.

TABLE IV.—SHOWING THE AGGREGATE NUMBER OF WHITES, FREE COLORED PERSONS, AND SLAVES, OF EACH SEX, IN THE SEVERAL STATES ON THE 1st OF AUGUST, 1820.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITES.			FREE COLORED.			SLAVES.			TOTAL.
	Males.	*Females.*	*Total.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total.*	
Maine	149,195	148,145	297,340	437	492	*995	.....	.....	.....	298,335
New Hampshire	119,210	124,026	242,236	372	414	*925	.....	.....	.....	244,161
Vermont	117,310	117,536	234,846	438	465	*918	.....	.....	.....	235,764
Massachusetts	252,154	264,265	516,419	3,308	3,432	*6,866	.....	.....	.....	523,287
Rhode Island	38,492	40,921	79,413	1,587	1,967	*3,598	18	30	48	83,059
Connecticut	130,707	136,454	267,161	3,837	4,007	*7,944	37	60	97	275,202
New York	679,551	653,193	1,332,744	13,458	15,821	*29,980	5,088	5,000	10,088	1,372,812
New Jersey	129,619	127,790	257,409	6,416	6,044	*12,609	3,988	3,569	7,557	277,575
Pennsylvania	516,618	500,476	1,017,094	14,804	15,398	*32,153	85	126	211	1,049,458
Delaware	27,905	27,377	55,282	6,479	6,479	12,958	2,555	1,954	4,509	72,749
Maryland	131,743	128,479	260,222	18,746	20,984	39,730	56,373	51,025	107,398	407,350
Dist of Columbia	11,171	11,443	22,614	1,731	2,317	4,048	3,007	3,370	6,377	33,039
Virginia	304,731	298,343	603,074	17,849	19,040	*37,139	218,274	206,879	425,153	1,065,366
North Carolina	209,644	209,556	419,200	7,395	7,217	14,612	106,561	98,166	205,017	638,829
South Carolina	120,934	116,506	237,440	3,296	3,530	6,826	130,472	128,003	258,475	502,741
Georgia	98,404	91,162	189,566	851	912	*1,767	75,916	73,740	149,656	340,989
Kentucky	223,636	210,948	434,644	1,493	1,266	*2,941	63,914	62,818	126,732	564,317
Tennessee	173,600	166,327	339,927	1,501	1,226	*2,779	39,747	40,360	80,107	422,813
Ohio	300,607	275,965	576,572	2,454	2,269	*4,862	.....	.....	.....	581,434
Indiana	76,649	69,109	145,758	654	576	1,230	98	92	190	147,178
Mississippi	23,256	18,890	42,176	239	219	458	16,850	15,964	32,814	75,448
Illinois	29,401	24,387	53,788	237	220	*506	548	369	917	55,211
Louisiana	41,332	32,051	73,383	4,509	5,967	*10,960	36,566	32,498	69,064	153,407
Missouri	31,001	24,987	55,988	186	161	*376	5,341	4,881	10,222	66,586
Alabama †	51,750	44,495	96,245	357	276	633	24,717	22,722	47,439	144,317
Michigan	5,383	3,208	8,591	105	69	*305	.....	.....	.....	8,896
Arkansas	6,971	5,608	12,579	44	15	*77	820	797	1,617	14,273
TOTAL	4,001,064	3,871,647	7,872,711	112,783	120,783	238,197	790,965	752,723	1,543,688	9,654,596

* The numbers thus marked comprehend people of color who were designated in the census, in some of the returns, as "other free persons, except Indians, not taxed," without discrimination of sex. The whole number thus returned was 4,631.

† The population of this state was stated in the census published by the state department, in 1832, to be 127,901; but in the "statistical view," published by the same department three years afterwards, pursuant to resolutions of the Senate in 1833 and 1834, at was set down at 144,317—showing a difference of 16,416. The last of these official statements being believed to be correct, it has been here followed as to the aggregates of the whole population of the states, and of its three several classes; but as it omits the details, the distribution according to age, in the statement of 1832, remains uncorrected. There will therefore be found, between the aggregates and the details of the population of this state, a discrepancy of 16,416.

The decennial increase, shown by this census, compared with that of 1810, was as follows, viz:

	1820.	1810.
Of the whole population, .	33.35 per cent, . .	36.45 per cent.
Of the white, ...	34.3 " . . .	36.18 "
Of the free colored, . . .	27.75 " . . .	72. "
Of the slave, ...	29.57 " . . .	33.40 "
Of the whole colored, . .	29.33 " . . .	37.58 "

It thus appears that the increase of the whole population was 3.10 per cent more in the last ten years than in the ten preceding. But if we make a deduction from the increase shown by the census of 1810, for the extra gain by the purchase of Louisiana, and which may be estimated at 1¼ per cent, the difference will be reduced to 1.6 per cent—equivalent to 115,637 persons. This falling off is to be attributed partly to the suspension of immigration during the war, partly to the slaves who fled to the enemy during the same period, and lastly to that gradual diminution of natural increase of which the several enumerations furnish evidence, and which probably the war slightly increased.

While there was so sensible a difference in the increase of the population shown by the two last enumerations, its distribution among the several classes continued in nearly the same proportions, viz:

	Census of 1820.	*Census of* 1810.
The whites amount to .	81.55 per cent. . . .	80.97
The free colored . . .	2.46 "	2.57
The slaves	15.99 "	16.46
The whole free population,	84.01 "	83.54
The whole colored, . .	18.45 "	19.03

It thus appeared that the white population had gained on both descriptions of the colored.

The proportion between the sexes in the three classes was as follows, viz:

In the white population the males exceed the females, as 100 to 96.77.
Free colored do. the females exceed the males, as 107.09 to 100.
Slave do. the males exceed the females, as 100 to 95.16.

This excess of females in the free colored class, is to be ascribed principally to the seafaring and roaming habits of many of the males, and probably in a small degree to the greater number of females who are emancipated. The disproportion is therefore greatest between the ages of 14 and 45.

In five of the New England states, from the like prevalence of seafaring and migratory habits, the females exceed the males. In Maine, however, there is a small majority of males—the gain from immigration in that thinly settled state more than counterbalancing the loss by the pursuits of fishing and navigation. In the other states of the union the males, both of the white and colored population, exceed the females; and of the whites under ten years of age, the males are most numerous even in the New England states.

The excess of males exhibited by the census has doubtless been somewhat enhanced by foreign emigrants, of whom a majority are males, but it is to be referred principally to that curious and admirable provision of nature, by which the greater number of males born is sufficient, under ordinary circumstances, to compensate the peculiar casualties to which that sex is exposed. Even in the free colored population, of which the females have a preponderance of 7 per cent, *the males under* 14 exceed the females about 3 per cent.

The numbers of the three classes, male and female, within the several ages mentioned in the census, are respectively in the following proportions to the whole of each class, viz:

1st. *Of the whites—*

The males under 10 are	17.1	per cent.	The females,	16.3	per cent.
10 and under 16	7.8	"	"	7.7	"
16 and under 26	9.9	"	"	9.9	"
26 and under 45	9.7	"	"	9.4	"
45 and upwards	6.3	"	"	5.9	"
	50.8			49.2	

2d. *Of the free colored—*

The males under 14 are	20.4	per cent.	The females,	19.7	per cent.
14 and under 26	10.3	"	"	12.4	"
26 and under 45	10.	"	"	11.6	"
45 and upwards,	7.5	"	"	8.1	"
	48.2			51.8	

3d. *Of the slaves—*

The males under 14 are	22.4	per cent.	The females,	21.1	per cent.
14 and under 26	13.2	"	"	13.2	"
26 and under 45	10.6	"	"	9.9	"
45 and upwards,	5.	"	"	4.6	"
	51.2			48.8	

It thus appears that one third of the white population was under ten years of age, and not quite half (48.9 per cent) under sixteen. This age does not so equally divide this part of the population as it did in the previous enumerations, since the same causes which occasioned the small decline in the rate of natural increase before adverted to, lessened the proportion of those who were under that age, and consequently placed the point of equal division at somewhat greater age.

Of the free colored population less than two thirds, (62.8 per cent,) and of the slaves more than two thirds, (69.9,) are under twenty-six years of age.

The relative numbers of the white and colored population in the slave-holding states, is exhibited in the following table.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	*Whole population.*	*Whites.*	*Free col'd persons.*	*Slaves.*	PER CENTAGE OF *Wh'ts.*	*F. col'd persons.*	*Slaves.*
Delaware	72,749	55,282	12,955	4,509	76.	17.8	6.2
Maryland	407,350	260,222	39,730	107,398	63.9	9.7	26.4
Dist. of Columb.	33,039	22,614	4,048	6,377	68.5	12.2	19.3
Virginia	1,065,366	603,074	37,139	425,153	56.6	3.5	39.9
North Carolina	638,829	419,200	14,612	205,017	65.6	2.3	32.1
South Carolina	502,741	237,440	6,826	258,475	47.2	1.4	51.4
Georgia	340,989	189,566	1,767	149,656	55.6	.5	43.9
Kentucky	564,317	434,644	2,941	126,732	77.	.5	22.5
Tennessee	422,813	339,927	2,779	80,107	80.4	.7	18.9
Mississippi	75,448	42,176	458	32,814	55.9	.6	43.5
Louisiana	153,407	73,383	10,960	69,064	47.8	7.1	45.
Missouri	66,586	55,988	376	10,222	84.1	.6	15.3
Alabama	144,317	96,245	633	47,439	66.7	.4	32.9
Arkansas	14,273	12,579	77	1,617	88.1	.5	11.3
TOTAL	4,502,224	2,842,340	135,304	1,524,580	63.13	3.01	33.86

It thus appears that in these states, since the preceding census, the white population lost, and the colored portion gained nearly the half of one per cent.

CHAPTER V.

THE CENSUS OF 1830, BEING THE FIFTH DECENNIAL ENUMERATION UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

In the act of Congress which directed the fifth census, some important deviations from the preceding acts were introduced. Thus it numbered the population as it was on the 1st day of *June*, instead of the 1st of *August*, as had been previously done, so that the increase shown, on a comparison with the preceding census, was not as heretofore, for ten years, but for nine years and ten months. There were also a greater number of divisions according to age, both in the white and colored population.* The whites of each sex were arranged under thirteen heads, viz:

Those under . . . . . 5 years of age.
5 and under 10
10 " 15
15 " 20
20 " 30
30 " 40
40 " 50
50 " 60
60 " 70
70 " 80
80 " 90
90 " 100
100 and upwards.

The colored population of both descriptions, and of each sex, were arranged under the six following heads, viz:

Those under 10; 10 and under 24; 24 and under 36; 36 and under 55; 55 and under 100; 100 and upwards.

The result is exhibited in the five following tables.

* There were also columns for the deaf, and dumb, and blind, of different ages, which will be hereafter noticed.

TABLE I.—SHOWING THE NUMBER OF WHITE MALES IN THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1ST OF JUNE, 1830.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	*Under* 5.	5 *to* 10.	10 *to* 15.	15 *to* 20.	20 *to* 30.	30 *to* 40.	40 *to* 50.	50 *to* 60.	60 *to* 70.	70 *to* 80.	80 *to* 90.	90 *to* 100.	100 *upw'ds*	TOTAL.
Maine,	34,053	28,742	25,522	22,400	34,985	21,700	14,547	9,228	5,956	2,637	823	93	2	200,689
New Hampshire,	19,428	17,521	16,737	14,847	21,191	14,696	10,772	7,218	5,059	2,786	840	85	4	131,184
Vermont,	21,700	19,406	17,597	15,782	24,207	15,773	10,405	7,051	5,203	2,203	618	48	3	139,996
Massachusetts,	40,644	35,988	34,679	32,891	58,621	35,433	23,683	15,008	10,319	5,575	1,760	173	1	294,685
Rhode Island,	6,733	5,786	5,400	5,354	8,425	5,379	3,512	2,157	1,444	854	261	28	.....	45,383
Connecticut,	19,033	17,891	17,788	16,509	26,166	16,608	11,595	7,851	5,495	3,154	871	81	5	143,047
New York,	158,077	137,071	118,523	101,712	176,754	113,136	68,871	40,503	23,909	10,034	2,561	255	35	951,441
New Jersey,	25,071	21,204	19,745	17,123	27,001	17,231	11,043	7,053	4,458	2,021	534	44	1	152,529
Pennsylvania,	117,853	96,199	82,375	73,113	121,359	75,172	46,600	28,032	16,085	6,979	1,775	228	42	665,812
Delaware,	4,744	4,099	3,919	3,184	5,508	3,206	2,036	1,286	609	202	43	9	.....	28,845
Maryland,	23,737	19,438	17,886	15,778	29,397	18,215	11,072	6,565	3,462	1,375	355	53	7	147,340
D. of Columbia,	2,333	1,680	1,486	1,522	2,805	1,817	1,068	593	245	75	25	1	1	13,647
Virginia,	65,793	51,805	43,287	36,947	60,911	36,539	23,381	15,261	8,971	3,674	1,108	184	26	347,887
North Carolina,	46,749	35,950	30,527	25,452	39,428	23,042	14,998	10,536	5,968	2,489	649	138	28	235,954
South Carolina,	25,132	20,259	16,497	13,961	22,164	13,969	8,334	5,644	3,042	1,210	298	66	14	130,590
Georgia,	37,027	23,709	18,594	15,186	26,844	16,156	9,542	5,674	3,083	1,120	290	63	10	153,288
Alabama,	22,764	15,482	12,129	9,509	17,440	11,399	6,029	3,593	1,741	591	147	19	3	100,846
Mississippi,	7,918	5,572	4,591	3,623	7,237	4,632	2,419	1,595	632	189	47	11	.....	38,456
Louisiana,	7,968	6,402	5,134	4,325	10,458	7,777	4,304	2,203	896	317	78	24	9	49,715
Tennessee,	59,576	45,366	36,044	29,247	44,982	25,111	15,108	11,188	5,543	2,107	657	165	32	275,066
Kentucky,	54,116	41,073	34,222	29,017	45,913	26,289	15,966	10,843	6,253	2,585	699	119	28	267,123
Ohio,	96,411	74,690	62,151	51,138	81,290	49,346	31,112	18,058	10,783	3,632	935	138	29	479,713
Indiana,	39,780	28,692	22,872	17,653	28,153	17,904	10,306	6,004	3,160	1,059	240	49	13	175,885
Illinois,	18,834	12,753	10,024	7,770	14,706	8,825	4,627	2,853	1,172	384	90	6	4	82,048
Missouri,	13,531	9,617	7,469	5,639	11,147	7,084	3,642	1,939	927	334	60	14	2	61,405
Michigan,	3,023	2,326	1,905	1,543	4,389	2,739	1,232	658	264	64	20	4	1	18,168
Arkansas,	3,020	2,021	1,626	1,272	2,835	1,820	876	834	209	69	12	1	.....	14,195
Florida,	1,932	1,333	1,015	789	2,171	1,536	760	436	194	57	10	2	1	10,236
TOTAL,	972,980	782,075	669,734	573,196	956,487	592,535	367,840	229,284	135,082	57 772	15,806	2,041	301	5,355,133

TABLE II.—SHOWING THE NUMBER OF WHITE FEMALES IN THE UNITED STATES, ON THE 1ST OF JUNE, 1850

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	*Under* 5.	5 *to* 10.	10 *to* 15.	15 *to* 20.	20 *to* 30.	30 *to* 40.	40 *to* 50.	50 *to* 60.	60 *to* 70.	70 *to* 80.	80 *to* 90.	90 *to* 100.	100 & upw'ds	TOTAL.
Maine,	32,471	27,676	24,067	22,348	35,596	22,259	14,183	9,330	5,904	2,688	911	138	3	197,574
New Hampshire,	18,538	16,790	15,525	14,823	24,564	16,690	11,896	8,448	5,888	3,110	1,085	174	6	137,537
Vermont,	21,334	18,632	16,575	15,978	26,540	17,937	13,214	9,245	6,707	3,760	1,228	156	3	139,775
Massachusetts,	39,533	34,537	33,326	34,439	60,495	38,163	26,684	18,456	12,989	7,173	2,528	347	4	308,674
Rhode Island,	6,623	5,642	5,213	5,584	9,203	5,756	4,024	2,826	1,939	1,058	376	44	.....	48,288
Connecticut,	18,270	16,943	16,575	15,978	26,540	17,937	13,214	9,245	6,707	3,760	1,228	156	3	146,556
New York,	151,868	133,084	115,166	105,196	168,897	104,522	64,315	38,344	22,589	9,645	2,673	304	17	916,620
New Jersey,	23,937	20,479	18,267	16,784	25,817	16,623	11,007	7,307	4,705	2,160	586	63	2	147,737
Pennsylvania,	111,947	92,719	80,087	75,976	115,898	69,604	44,485	27,882	16,221	7,084	1,929	235	21	644,088
Delaware,	4,647	4,011	3,654	3,381	5,484	3,179	2,047	1,397	360	263	56	6	1	28,756
Maryland,	22,356	18,693	17,327	18,020	27,248	16,617	10,840	6,983	3,633	1,541	432	64	14	143,768
D. of Columbia,	2,182	1,646	1,648	1,843	2,856	1,752	980	603	272	98	32	4	.....	13,916
Virginia,	62,411	49,964	41,936	40,479	62,044	36,456	23,750	15,447	8,765	3,847	1,098	188	28	346,413
North Carolina,	43,775	34,264	28,842	27,398	41,636	24,534	16,428	10,601	5,980	2,496	747	158	30	236,889
South Carolina,	23,691	19,043	15,632	15,122	21,866	13,438	8,468	5,455	2,929	1,181	351	80	17	127,273
Georgia,	30,958	22,590	17,988	16,452	24,036	13,974	8,427	5,089	2,664	987	268	65	20	143,518
Alabama,	21,340	14,801	11,092	9,951	14,457	8,559	4,695	2,731	1,319	432	144	29	10	89,560
Mississippi,	7,319	5,165	4,169	3,653	5,231	3,090	1,739	983	436	149	34	7	2	31,977
Louisiana,	7,800	6,193	5,140	4,709	6,930	4,204	2,310	1,257	660	222	73	17	1	39,516
Tennessee,	55,399	42,975	33,556	30,616	42,970	23,545	15,264	9,279	4,541	1,855	542	110	28	260,680
Kentucky,	50,835	39,439	32,197	29,623	41,936	23,463	15,476	9,499	5,315	2,195	575	97	14	250,664
Ohio,	89,873	71,851	59,306	52,635	75,574	43,894	27,546	15,898	8,293	2,915	736	89	6	448,616
Indiana,	37,505	27,313	21,072	18,087	26,702	15,703	9,028	4,808	2,275	780	212	25	4	163,514
Illinois,	17,429	12,000	9,246	8,053	12,461	6,850	3,750	2,047	812	273	77	14	1	73,013
Missouri,	12,561	9,077	6,794	5,765	8,791	5,121	2,718	1,499	766	227	60	9	2	53,390
Michigan,	2,743	2,066	1,686	1,438	2,540	1,399	726	390	140	35	10	5	.....	13,178
Arkansas,	2,782	1,897	1,494	1,225	2,012	1,087	528	301	107	31	9	3	.....	11,476
Florida,	1,807	1,251	961	923	1,447	848	484	247	101	45	10	5	.....	8,149
TOTAL,	921,934	750,741	638,856	596,254	918,411	555,531	356,046	223,504	131,307	58,336	17,434	2,523	238	5,171,115

TABLE III.—SHOWING THE NUMBER OF FREE COLORED PERSONS IN THE UNITED STATES, ON THE 1ST OF JUNE, 1830.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	MALES.							FEMALES.						
	Under 10.	*10 to 24.*	*24 to 36.*	*36 to 55.*	*55 to 100.*	*100 and up'ds.*	*Total.*	*Under 10.*	*10 to 24.*	*24 to 36.*	*36 to 55.*	*55 to 100.*	*100 and up'ds.*	*Total.*
Maine,	163	172	111	108	54	2	610	143	175	117	93	52	.....	580
New Hampshire,	67	78	53	44	32	1	275	68	97	54	63	45	2	329
Vermont,	121	116	78	60	48	3	426	121	131	73	71	57	2	4,555
Massachusetts,	806	887	718	629	314	4	3,350	812	967	815	661	396	39	3,699
Rhode Island,	337	501	317	238	152	3	1,548	355	597	443	350	265	3	2,013
Connecticut,	1,019	1,121	771	624	313	2	3,850	1,051	1,233	819	667	417	10	4,197
New York,	5,643	6,094	4,860	3,492	1,358	19	21,466	5,509	6,843	5,504	3,780	1,714	54	23,404
New Jersey,	3,033	3,234	1,458	1,196	573	7	9,501	2,811	2,890	1,428	1,113	554	6	8,802
Pennsylvania,	5,095	5,250	4,069	2,796	1,132	35	18,377	5,054	6,142	4,476	2,742	1,105	34	19,553
Delaware,	2,627	2,259	1,303	1,180	503	10	7,882	2,524	2,359	1,446	1,102	526	16	7,973
Maryland,	8,309	6,099	4,020	4,142	2,287	49	24,906	7,912	7,313	5,389	4,535	2,796	87	28,032
District of Columbia,	895	649	464	405	229	3	2,645	863	1,033	682	564	358	7	3,507
Virginia,	8,236	6,126	3,546	2,721	1,731	27	22,387	8,002	7,031	4,501	3,379	2,024	24	24,961
North Carolina,	3,438	2,955	1,400	1,062	685	21	9,561	3,287	3,118	1,649	1,179	720	29	9,982
South Carolina,	1,314	958	622	424	335	19	3,672	1,378	1,175	746	545	399	6	4,249
Georgia,	368	353	224	186	118	12	1,261	347	330	231	185	126	6	1,225
Alabama,	275	202	187	124	56	.....	844	245	209	131	84	56	3	728
Mississippi,	81	82	59	43	22	1	288	72	51	45	49	14	.....	231
Louisiana,	2,503	2,296	1,208	828	384	11	7,230	2,640	2,727	1,927	1,402	755	29	9,480
Tennessee,	842	583	361	321	216	7	2,330	772	616	359	285	187	6	2,225
Kentucky,	764	584	410	484	402	8	2,652	633	505	351	398	369	9	2,265
Ohio,	1,562	1,440	808	646	325	8	4,789	1,573	1,551	799	611	241	4	4,779
Indiana,	617	544	307	240	138	11	1,857	594	573	279	215	107	4	1,772
Illinois,	277	251	136	119	40	1	824	305	225	125	106	50	2	813
Missouri,	87	76	43	57	18	3	284	77	62	46	63	34	3	285
Michigan,	31	43	48	29	8	.....	159	20	36	26	16	4	.....	102
Arkansas,	27	17	23	17	3	1	88	17	13	10	7	6	.....	53
Florida,	138	109	46	56	33	1	383	144	136	70	62	48	1	461
TOTAL	48,675	43,079	27,650	22,271	11,509	269	153,453	47,329	48,138	32,541	24,327	13,425	386	166,146

TABLE IV.—SHOWING THE NUMBER OF SLAVES IN THE UNITED STATES, ON THE 1st OF JUNE, 1830.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	MALES.							FEMALES.						
	Under 10.	*10 to 24.*	*24 to 36.*	*36 to 55.*	*55 to 100.*	*100 and up'ds.*	*Total.*	*Under 10.*	*10 to 24.*	*24 to 36.*	*36 to 55.*	*55 to 100.*	*100 and up'ds.*	*Total.*
Maine,										1		1		2
New Hampshire,										2	1			3
Vermont,														
Massachusetts,													1	1
Rhode Island,		2			1		3		4	1	1	8		14
Connecticut,	1	2		1	4		8	1	3		4	9		17
New York,	5	6		1		1	13	23	12	17	3	6	1	62
New Jersey,	5	12	395	383	261	3	1,059	8	20	424	451	288	4	1,195
Pennsylvania,	23	102	25	11	10	1	172	32	106	22	25	42	4	231
Delaware,	580	853	245	83	42	3	1,806	508	617	230	80	49	2	1,486
Maryland,	17,880	17,759	8,846	6,135	2,772	50	53,442	17,002	16,236	8,331	5,329	2,601	53	49,552
District of Columbia,	794	1,024	542	375	114	3	2,852	816	1,270	612	391	176	2	3,267
Virginia,	84,000	68,917	43,189	30,683	12,155	133	239,077	83,207	66,921	40,927	27,206	12,275	144	230,680
North Carolina,	45,991	38,099	20,212	14,030	5,848	133	124,313	44,847	37,508	20,095	13,088	5,636	114	121,288
South Carolina,	51,820	44,600	29,710	21,674	7,567	98	155,469	51,524	45,517	32,689	22,006	8,112	84	159,932
Georgia,	38,367	34,253	19,410	12,818	3,847	92	108,817	38,102	33,917	20,527	12,325	3,765	78	108,714
Alabama,	21,837	19,553	11,100	5,158	1,495	27	59,170	21,386	19,669	11,088	4,898	1,312	26	58,379
Mississippi,	11,037	10,793	6,947	3,455	845	22	33,099	10,860	10,841	6,983	3,173	682	21	32,560
Louisiana,	13,627	17,926	15,784	8,443	2,089	42	57,911	13,687	16,613	13,534	6,249	1,552	42	51,677
Tennessee,	27,713	23,431	11,260	6,020	1,729	63	70,217	26,568	24,145	12,223	6,519	1,891	41	71,387
Kentucky,	31,500	27,449	13,520	7,499	2,280	61	82,309	30,975	27,346	13,854	8,107	2,572	50	82,904
Ohio,		1					1		2	3				5
Indiana,									2		1			3
Illinois,	98	118	76	47	6	2	347	144	128	61	52	12	3	400
Missouri,	4,872	4,364	2,058	923	208	14	12,439	4,611	4,605	2,199	1,014	219	4	12,652
Michigan,	2	7	11	1	1		22	1	3	3	3			10
Arkansas,	845	814	395	192	47		2,293	803	836	399	193	51	1	2,283
Florida,	2,501	2,482	1,830	948	224		7,985	2,560	2,449	1,561	768	177	1	7,516
	353,498	312,567	185,585	118,800	41,545	748	1,012,823	347,662	308,770	185,786	111,887	41,436	676	996,220

TABLE V.—SHOWING THE AGGREGATE NUMBER OF WHITES, FREE COLORED PERSONS, AND SLAVES, OF EACH SEX, IN THE SEVERAL STATES, ON THE 1st OF JUNE, 1830.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITES.			FREE COLORED.			SLAVES.			GRAND TOTAL.
	Males.	*Females.*	*Total.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total.*	
Maine,	200,689	197,574	398,263	610	580	1,190	.....	2	2	399,455
New Hampshire,	131,184	137,537	268,721	275	329	604	.....	3	3	269,328
Vermont,	139,996	139,775	279,771	426	455	881	.....	.....	.....	280,652
Massachusetts,	294,685	308,674	603,359	3,358	3,690	7,048	.....	.....	.....	610,408
Rhode Island,	45,383	45,288	93,621	1,548	2,013	3,561	3	14	17	97,199
Connecticut,	143,047	146,556	289,603	3,850	4,197	8,047	8	17	25	297,675
New York,	951,441	916,620	*1,873,663	21,466	23,404	44,870	13	62	75	1,918,608
New Jersey,	152,529	147,737	300,266	9,501	8,802	18,303	1,059	1,195	2,254	320,823
Pennsylvania,	665,812	644,088	1,309,900	18,377	19,553	37,930	172	231	403	1,348,233
Delaware,	28,845	28,756	57,601	7,882	7,973	15,855	1,806	1,486	3,292	76,748
Maryland,	147,340	143,768	291,108	24,906	28,032	52,938	53,442	49,552	102,994	447,040
D. of Columbia,	13,647	13,916	27,563	2,645	3,507	6,152	2,852	3,267	6,119	39,834
Virginia,	347,887	346,413	694,300	22,387	24,961	47,348	239,077	230,680	469,757	1,211,405
North Carolina,	235,954	236,889	472,843	9,561	9,982	19,543	124,313	121,288	245,601	737,987
South Carolina,	130,590	127,273	257,863	3,672	4,249	7,921	155,469	159,932	315,401	581,185
Georgia,	153,288	143,518	296,806	1,261	1,225	2,486	108,817	108,714	217,531	516,823
Alabama,	100,846	89,560	190,406	844	728	1,572	59,170	58,379	117,549	309,527
Mississippi,	38,456	31,977	70,443	288	231	519	33,099	32,560	65,659	136,621
Louisiana,	49,715	39,516	†89,441	7,230	9,480	16,710	57,911	51,677	109,588	215,739
Tennessee,	275,066	260,680	535,746	2,330	2,225	4,555	70,216	71,387	141,603	681,904
Kentucky,	267,123	250,664	517,787	2,652	2,265	4,917	82,309	82,904	165,213	687,917
Ohio,	479,713	448,616	928,329	4,789	4,779	9,568	1	5	6	937,903
Indiana,	175,885	163,514	339,399	1,857	1,772	3,629	.....	3	3	343,031
Illinois,	82,048	73,013	155,061	824	813	1,637	347	400	747	157,445
Missouri,	61,405	53,390	114,795	284	285	569	12,439	12,652	25,091	140,455
Michigan,	18,168	13,178	31,346	159	102	261	22	10	32	31,639
Arkansas,	14,195	11,476	25,671	88	53	141	2,293	2,283	4,576	30,388
Florida,	10,236	8,149	18,385	383	461	844	7,985	7,516	15,011	34,730
TOTAL,	5,355,133	5,171,115	10,537,378	153,453	166,146	319,599	1,012,823	996,220	2,009,043	‡12,866,020

* This number comprehends 5,602 omitted in the marshal's return of the details.
† This number comprehends 210 omitted in the marshal's return of the details.
‡ This number comprehends the omissions in New York and Louisiana, and 5,318 persons on board the public ships.

The increase shown by this census, that is for a period of nine years and ten months, is as follows, viz:

The whole population,	33.26 per cent.
Whites,	33.85
Free colored,	34.17
Slaves,	30.15
The whole colored,	30.7

If we add the increase for the two months required to make up the complete term of 10 years, which is very nearly equal to the half of 1 per cent, the last decennial increase will thus compare with the preceding, viz:

	1830.	1820.
The whole population,	33.92 per cent.	33.35 per cent.
Whites,	34.52	34.3
Free colored,	34 85	27.75
Slaves,	30.75	29.57
The whole colored,	31.31	29.33

This comparative view shows that the rate of increase was somewhat greater in the last ten years than in the ten preceding, instead of being less, as would appear by the enumeration actually taken. The gain from a greater and more uninterrupted immigration, from 1820 to 1830, is more than equal to the additional increase here shown.

The increase of the three classes had been so nearly equal, that their relative proportions are nearly the same as in 1820. Thus:

In 1820—		In 1830—
The whites were	81.55 per cent.	81.90
The free colored,	2.46	2.48
The slaves,	15.99	15.62

Showing a small gain of the white population on the colored, and of the free colored on the slaves.

The males and females, in the three classes, were in the following proportions, viz:

In the white population the males exceed the females, as 100 to 96.56.
Free colored do. the females exceed the males, as 107.64 to 100.
Slave do. the males exceed the females, as 100 to 98.37.

The proportion between the sexes continued nearly the same as under the preceding census, with both descriptions of the free population; but with the slaves, the proportion of females was greater than under the preceding census by more than 3 per cent. This relative change in their numbers might have been caused by a greater mortality among the males; by an extraordinary number of runaways to foreign countries, who are chiefly males; or lastly, by a greater proportion of males of those who had been emancipated. As there seems to be no reason to suppose that more males than females were emancipated, the two first causes must be relied on to explain the difference in question; and neither of them is inconsistent with well-known facts. The instances of escape to Canada have greatly increased within the last twenty years; and of the slaves who are transported to the south, there is a greater proportion of males, and their lives are probably abridged by change of climate and habits.

The proportions of the males and females, at different ages, to the whole number of each sex in the several classes,* are as follows, viz:

1st. *Of the whites—*

	Males.	*Females.*
Those under 5 years of age,	18.17 per cent.	17.83 per cent.
5 and under 10	14.60	14.52
10 and under 15	12.51	12.35
15 and under 20	10.70	11.53
20 and under 30	17.96	17.76
30 and under 40	11.09	10.74
40 and under 50	6.86	6.89
50 and under 60	4.28	4.32
60 and under 70	2.52	2.54
70 and under 80	1.08	1.13
80 and under 90	.29	.34
90 and under 100	.04	.05
	100.	100.

2d. *Of the free colored persons—*

Those under 10	31.72	28.49
10 and under 24	28.07	28.97
24 and under 36	18.02	19.59
36 and under 55	14.51	14.64
55 and under 100	7.50	8.08
100 and upwards	.18	.23
	100.	100.

3d. *Of the slaves—*

Those under 10	34.90	34.90
10 and under 24	30.86	30.99
24 and under 36	18.32	18.65
36 and under 55	11.74	11.23
55 and under 100	4.10	4.16
100 and upwards	.07	.07
	100.	100.

The preceding tables show that, of the whole population, the number under ten years of age is exactly one third; but the slaves of the same age exceed that proportion, and both descriptions of the free population fall short of it.

If we compare the number of white children under 10, with the number of females between 16 and 45, whether of the same or the preceding census, we find the ratio continually diminishing. Thus:

* It will be perceived that this comparative view differs from that given under the census of 1820. Here the number of males and females, at the different periods of life, are compared with the whole number *of the same sex*, in the respective classes; but there the same were compared with the whole number *of both sexes*. In that, the per centage of both sexes is found by adding the separate per centage of each; here the same result is obtained by taking the medium per centage of both.

1st. When compared with the females of the same census—

The children were to the females, in 1800, as 183.1 to 100.
" " " 1810, as 162.3 to 100.
" " " 1820, as 173. to 100.

2d. When compared with the females of the succeeding census—

The children were to the females, in 1810, as 248. to 100.
" " " 1820, as 237.4 to 100.
" " " 1830, as 225.8 to 100.

For which diminution of ratio no satisfactory explanation can be given but a gradual decline in the rate of natural increase. It is to be regretted that the enumerations do not show the number of married women, whereby our inferences, as to this important question, might have been more precise and conclusive.

The relative numbers of the three classes, in the slaveholding states, were thus distributed in 1830, viz:

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	*Whole population.*	*Whites.*	*Free col'd*	*Slaves.*	PER CENTAGE OF		
					Wh'ts.	*F. col'd.*	*Slaves.*
Delaware.....	76,748	57,601	15,855	3,292	75.1	20.6	4.3
Maryland.....	447,040	291,108	52,938	102,994	65.1	11.8	23.1
Dist. of Columb.	39,834	27,563	6,152	6,119	69.2	15.4	15.3
Virginia.....	1,211,405	694,300	47,318	469,757	57.4	3.8	38.8
North Carolina..	737,987	472,843	19,543	245,601	64.1	1.6	33.3
South Carolina..	581,185	257,863	7,921	315,401	44.4	1.3	54.3
Georgia.....	516,823	296,806	2,486	217,531	57.4	1.5	42.1
Alabama.....	309,527	190,406	1,572	117,549	61.5	.5	38.
Mississippi.....	136,621	70,443	519	65,659	51.5	.4	48.1
Louisiana.....	215,739	89,441	16,710	109,588	41.5	7.7	50.8
Tennessee.....	681,904	535,746	4,555	141,603	78.5	.7	20.8
Arkansas.....	30,388	25,671	141	4,576	84.5	.5	15.
Kentucky.....	687,917	517,787	4,917	165,213	75.3	1.3	23.5
Missouri.....	140,455	114,795	569	25,091	81.7	.4	17.9
Florida.....	34,730	18,385	844	15,501	53.1	2.3	44.6
TOTAL.....	5,848,303	3,660,758	182,070	2,005,475	62.60	3.11	34.29

By the preceding table both classes of the colored population had gained a little on the whites in these states.

The numbers gained by the acquisition of Florida are included in the 5th enumeration, and the several estimates relative to it; but as its population at the time of its purchase (in 1821) probably did not exceed 10,000 persons, or the tenth of one per cent on the whole population. its disturbing influence has been disregarded in the preceding views.

Art. III.—THE NAVY AND ITS USE.

REDUCTION OF THE NAVY—ITS INFLUENCE ON OUR COMMERCE—USE OF THE NAVY—PROGRESS OF THE NAVY—PROBABILITY OF A GENERAL WAR—THE RIGHT OF SEARCH—INFLUENCE OF THE NAVY ABROAD—THE NAVY SHOULD BE INCREASED, ETC.

The contemplated reduction of the navy is the measure of which of all others the present Congress can claim the most undisputed parentage. Coming even from a body as eccentric as that with which it originated, we confess it struck us with grave astonishment. In a time of superficial peace, when our relations with the great maritime powers of the old world have become so entangled as to make quite probable the intervention of that summary diplomacy which the strong is always ready to wreak upon the weak; when we are just plunging into the embarrassments which will arise from the winding up of an old tariff and the adjustment of another, which, from the necessities of the general government, must be more spread, and, from the pressure of local interests, may be more unequal than that which preceded it; at a time when the propriety which is thus created of a respectable central force, is increased by the urgent requisition on the general government for interposition by the constituted authorities of at least one state;—at such a time, we repeat, we did not anticipate that a proposition to reduce and to incapacitate the navy, would be seriously debated in our national legislature. Such however has been the case. Without the least pulse of instigation from the body of the people, without the preparatory internal motions by which great measures are preceded, without the reception of evidence or the hearing of counsel, either before the House or by committee, votes were taken and resolutions passed, which would eventuate, if carried into effect, in the prostration of our maritime service. It is not our duty to speculate upon the results of the various reforms which were thus passed upon, or to criticise the modifications of which they were susceptible. We make use of the opportunity which the movement itself affords, to claim a hearing on behalf of those whose property and whose character have been put at stake. As the organ of the commercial community, we have a right to come into court and show reason why the navy should not go down. We are parties interested in the cause, and we are privileged to be heard, not only because our right as citizens gives us a right as judges, but because it is upon us that the blow will finally fall; because when the rampart which protects our wealth and our immunities is removed, the city which is behind it will be pillaged.

We do not argue the question of the expediency of great commercial dealings. No legislation can stop them; and though they may be greatly disarranged, and cruelly distorted by domestic interference or by foreign aggression, though our integral wealth may be dissipated, and our national honor laid low by governmental interposition, as long as we have more than we want of some of the great staples of consumption, and have less than we want of others; as long as fields plaided with tobacco, and swamps bristled with rice, and brakes plumed with the cotton plant, are swathed over the body of the southern states; as long as the north can produce coarse grains, and rough cloths, and common cutlery, sufficient to supply the southern market, so long will the wheel of trade be kept in motion, and the north and south together will exchange their natural productions

for others which in England or in India can be raised more cheaply. The merchant may be reduced to a savage, but he still will barter the rude superfluities which then remain to him, for the necessities of which the next savage is possessed. As a nation, we form part of the great harmonious system of the universe, and should we be cut out from the surrounding members, should we be separated from the market place, where our common wants and our common superfluities can be exchanged, we will find, like a man who has on a dozen jackets while otherwise he is wholly naked, that while the necessities which we possess are so redundant as to be oppressive, they can only by an entire contortion of their office be made to supply the articles of which we are in want. Such a state of things could scarcely exist, except in an interregnum of revolution. The man doubly clothed in one quarter, who meets a neighbor doubly clothed in another, will soon adjust an equilibrium of necessities. We will trade with another, we will trade with foreign nations; and the question to be decided, is not whether we shall cease trading altogether, but whether our traders shall be preserved from insult, our property from confiscation, and our honor from disgrace.

Should the exports and imports of the country be measured by the cargo of a single ship, that ship should be protected by an adequate navy. A citizen of the United States has the same claim on the watchfulness of his government, whether he be in the Indian Sea or in the District of Columbia; and that same justice which must avenge his injuries, must prevent their future occurrence. The cabin of each armed cruiser becomes the consular office of the nation by whom it is despatched; and wherever the flag is suspended, a signal is held out, that from it protection may be sought and redress afforded. Wo to the dignity of a country whose citizens must rely, the moment the portcullis of their own forts is closed on them, upon the forbearance of rival nations for support. There was once a parenthesis of time, which the retrenchment lecturers have studiously dropped from our history, when, without any thing more than the masqueraded miniature of a navy, we were called upon to protect our commerce against the encroachments of the two great antagonist powers of the old world. In the centre of our fight lay our little gun-boats, exposed to the double fire of the huge three-deckers, which the mammoth energies of France and England had thrown upon the sea. An American merchant vessel was the legitimate prize on which the cruisers of both countries wreaked their prowess; and often, when a more noble robber was out of view, when the lion and the eagle of the forest were tearing each other in the distant landscape, privateers of the lowest grade of creation, who had prowled like jackals over the quarry, till the coast was clear, pounced down upon the victim, and carried it off in muffled swiftness to the cave where their treasures were secreted. There was none so mean as to do us honor. Our commerce was degenerating into a contraband carrying trade, and had not gun-boats sunk, had not the pride and honor of the country been roused to a pitch which repelled the encroachments of both aggressors, our merchant service would have been limited to an outlaw trade, and our navy would have been totally extinguished.

Our commercial history, since that era, need not be written. Not in one point alone, but in every section of the sphere, in every sea, where stout timbers, and stout hands, and stout hearts can carry the merchant, bargains have been struck and treaties cemented. The smallest trader,

the ice-retailer in India, or the toy-pedler in New Zealand, has pointed to his ship certificates as a diploma, whose potency no college, however savage, can resist. There has been a conventional sanctity attached to the American name in distant seas, which its gallant navy alone has won. What else there is to recommend us, we know not; our government is distasteful to the monarchies of the east, our financial dealings have not been the most creditable, nor our embassies the most splendid, and yet we have earned in the most desolate coasts a character which has consecrated our commerce and secured our citizens. There are captains in the service who can testify of receptions the most solemn in courts the most wild, and of courtesies which spoke both of the respect and the kindness of the giver, from sovereigns of every grade from the cannibal monarch of the South Sea, to the deified Lady Hester Stanhope. Even in South America itself, the paradise of outlawry, in a country whose people are a creole compound of Spanish pride with Indian treachery, our flag has been unfurled to canonize with its shadow not only our domestic property, but the remnants of their own shattered constitution.

All this, are we told, is to be undone. The sentinels are to be withdrawn from the fortress. Our national ships are to be tossed out into the Gulf-stream, with their masts unclothed and their ports dismantled. A navy which, in the hands of any other power, would be scarcely elastic enough to stretch over the mouth of the Gulf of Mexico, is to be shorn of its growth and drifted loose on the world. It has done great service, but its claims to our gratitude are to be overlooked. Its officers have three-fourths expatriated themselves, and as a reward, the fragment of home which they still clutch is to be torn from their hands. The moderate allowance given to them—an allowance which on shore to men of their energy and their self-sacrifice would be doubled by either of the remaining professions—is to be shrunk till it can but half cover their backs. Away from the national councils, scattered by the terms of their commissions to the four winds, their incomes, their services, their claims have been brought on the carpet, and without mercy criticised and dissected. They have been indicted by the grand inquest of the people, and before the people themselves they do now stand on trial.

We do not come forward to plead their cause. We are sure that with the great mass of the people it will require no labored defence. We feel, however, that we have a duty belonging to ourselves which it would be suicidal in us to neglect. It is *our* interests that are at stake, and through us the interests of the whole community. Disperse the police, and the seas will be the high road of piracy. Call home the navy, and the merchant service will be unsettled and destroyed. Let our guns cease to be heard, and our name will cease to be respected. Men should reflect on the vast general consequences which will result from a momentary withdrawal of our maritime force, and we are sure that the pruning hook will be thrown aside. We bring to mind that it is through a defended commerce that the infinite division of labor in our country is maintained, and that instead of the great mass being huddled together in one huge field, or in one huge workshop, to produce the cardinal indigenous articles of consumption on which life may be barely supported, each laborer is apportioned to his own branch and to his own individual employment, and is enabled, through the multifarious exchange that the reciprocity of trade has established, to devote himself to the vocation which his choice pre-

scribed, be it even so narrow as the forging of pin-heads alone, and to receive in return for the exuberance of his own staple the luxuries and comforts which the most distant climates afford. We bring to mind that it is by the commutation of individual or of national productions that the blessings of civilization are created, and that it is by means of the possession of a decent competency by each man who is willing to work, that our free institutions are made practicable. We bring to mind, also, that when our commerce is no longer protected our national charity must cease, for it is by means of our commercial intercourse with distant nations alone, that we can hope to impress upon them the stamp of constitutional liberty and of Christian truth.

The necessity of an increase of the navy proportional to the increase of our foreign commerce, has been felt and acted on with remarkable uniformity since the period when the navy was first called into action. We have prepared a table which exhibits the amount of our exports from 1817 to 1840 inclusive, together with the navy expenses for the same period, by which it will be found that drawing off from the aggregates the flush caused by temporary gluts of the money market or by extraordinary and specific appropriations, there has been a sober and proportionable increase in each department.

	Value of Exports	*Expenses of the Navy.*	
1817	87,671,569	3,314,598	
1818	93,281,133	2,953,695	
1819	70,142,521	3,847,640	
1820	69,691,669	4,387,990	(1)
1821	64,974,382	3,319,243	
1822	72,160,377	2,224,458	
1823	74,699,030	2,503,765	
1824	75,986,657	2,904,581	
1825	99,535,388	3,049,083	
1826	77,595,322	4,218,902	(2)
1827	82,324,827	4,263,877	
1828	72,264,686	3,918,786	
1829	72,358,671	3,308,745	
1830	73,849,508	3,239,428	
1831	81,310,583	3,856,183	(3)
1832	87,176,943	3,956,370	
1833	90,140,433	3,901,356	
1834	104,336,973	3,956,260	
1835	121,693,577	3,898,791	
1836	128,663,040	5,827,816	(4)
1837	117,419,376	6,852,059	(5)
1838	108,486,616	5,980,971	
1839	121,028,416	5,941,389	(6)
1840	131,571,950	6,225,002	

To the present year belongs the distinction of having become the era in which the navy of the country should pass its culmination. The principle

(1) Increased to suppress piracies in the West Indies.

(2) Increased to suppress piracies. (3) Dry-docks begun.

(4) Exploring expedition preparing, and revenue expanding much.

(5) One large steamer. (6) Two more large steamers.

has been laid down authoritatively that naval appropriations must hereafter be squared within certain columns, and regulated by certain laws, no matter what may be the emergency of our foreign affairs or the necessities of our commerce. We should think that a principle quite the contrary would be the wisest. What will be the condition of our commerce when the fear is removed which is created on hostile or barbarous nations by the presence of our armed cruisers? If our trade is to extend, the garrison we place round it should extend also, and no surer way could be found of maiming our resources or of destroying our wealth, than by casting them out without protection on the high seas. We have no right, with a commerce every day increasing, with a country admirably adapted to commercial pursuits, to withdraw that watchfulness under the guarantee of which our trade was instituted. Our navy should not only not be reduced, but it should be extended in the proportion which has already existed. We claim that the expansion of our commerce should be met by a corresponding expansion of our maritime force. Had our own individual welfare been solely at stake, we would be justified in demanding as a right that protection which is necessary to our existence. We form part of a great community whose comfort, whose freedom, whose reputation, are intimately reticulated with our own, and when we are prostrated, the fibres of the whole body politic will be shattered. But we do not rest the cause here alone. Do our relations with foreign powers, we ask in the second place, justify the reduction of our naval service? We propose to glance hastily at the position in which we stand to one nation alone in the old world, and dropping all others from consideration, examine how far in connection with that power, we can be called upon to maim the most effective arm of our national defence.

It is not necessary to enter upon the question of a general war. Into the maelstrom of European politics may we never be drawn, but there may soon be felt a vast centripetal influence to which we must either submit ignominiously or resist by force. The old partition walls of nations are crumbling down and fresh landmarks starting up which will mark out in their time new and uncalculated combinations. How long will France, with a huge population whose taste is war, whose habit is war, whose glory is war, which has no commercial entanglements, no manufacturing manacles, which considers all peace on the basis of the two Parisian treaties dishonorable, which hates and despises the English as the Indian hates the white man, which thirsts and hungers for some new revolutionary whirlpool from which its eagles, darting down from their ancient fastnesses, may drag out their prey from the foaming surge,—how long will France remain cribbed and galled, with her circulation impeded, her spirit chafed, and her glory mildewed, when at a plunge she can toss over those fictitious limits into which the Congress of Vienna forced her? The Rhine and the Pyrenees, and then the Baltic and the Adriatic—away to those grand perpetual boundaries which nature has described! Once more let the dictator plant his horse on the summit of the Alps, once more let his sword point to Moscow or the Pyramids, and again those granite sentinels of buried ages will challenge from their ancient watch-seats troops of Frankish warriors, or again the skeletons of the barbarian Czars will be startled by invading armies in their vaulted mausoleum. The German Confederacy is knitting together its strength in preparation for such an outbreak. The Austrian empire is drilling its

armies out of the old-fashioned cumbrous quadrille which the Archduke Charles and the Prince Eugene had established, and is drilling into them the light and rapid manœuvres which prostrated fifty years ago the ancient bulwarks of Europe. And how long, also, we may ask, will Russia, with every limb ponderous with muscle,—with a consciousness that, counting together Cossacks, and Poles, and Swedes, and Laplanders, and Turks, and Sclavonians, counting those great hordes both European and Asiatic which her territories support, she possesses an army so immense, that should the cistern that holds it be but once loosed, it would tumble down by its own gravity in hurrying torrents, and swathe the whole southern continent in its coils,—how long will Russia, with the darts almost starting from her crowded hands, with her strength almost sickening from the luxury of its own exuberance, stand with her arms folded in her northern palaces and look down without interference on Turkey, or on Egypt, or on Syria? Such suggestions we do not pretend to weigh. Tremendous as must be the collision arising from the meeting of elements so adverse as those which a general war would collect, it is our duty to stand in a position of such guarded safety lest we ourselves be buried in the shock; and yet, tremendous as in all its influence it certainly will be, its indefiniteness removes too often the sanction which its probability would produce. Turning, therefore, to what is here a more legitimate subject of consideration, and passing over points which though more important would require an attention more extended than we can afford to give, we shall confine ourselves, for the sake of illustration, to a single branch in the difficulties between the United States and Great Britain.

Whatever may be the result of the discussion on the Quadruple Treaty, it opens a series of considerations of grave importance to our national character. We are asked, on the one hand, to enter into a league with the chief maritime powers of the world, for the suppression of the slave trade. Great as has been the efforts set on foot by Christian nations, honest as has been the activity with which their exertions have been followed up, the line of the equator has continued to be the track on which Africans, without limit, have been carried from their homes, and transported into the American continent and the adjacent islands. Laws have been passed and penalties have been prescribed, but the laws have been overridden and the penalties scorned by men who can obtain a great prospective prize at the cost of little more than another violation of a conscience already seared and brutal. The United States, Great Britain, Prussia, Russia, France, and Spain, have successively declared the traffic to be inhuman and piratical; and we believe that each one of them has made good, as far as its jurisdiction extends, the principles on which its statutes are predicated. But the slave trade, tolerated as it was and practised by all Christian nations for so long a period of time, cannot now by a change of sentiment, still only partial, be made piracy by the law of nations; and the consequence is that the armed cruisers of each country have jurisdiction only over slavers sailing under their respective flags, and must be obliged, the moment they discover that the stolen cargo is protected by the credentials of another country, to let it pass from under their fingers. An American man-of-war, for instance, on the coast of Brazil, may capture and confiscate an American slaver, but should British slavers in fleets pass under her very port-holes, she must let them pass in safety, because though both the United States and

Great Britain singly have declared the traffic to be piracy, it has not yet been made so by general convention. The most serious inconveniences have thus arisen. The grave statutory and judicial enunciations of both countries have been evaded by a fraud which is as palpable as it is efficient, and an American slaver chased by an American man-of-war is as ready to hoist British colors, and thus under the sanctity of a foreign flag to escape investigation, as a British slaver is to make use of a similar gloss when under equally pressing circumstances. The ingenuity of the trick is in fact originally to be attributed to our transatlantic contemporaries, and there is on record a score of instances where slavers, as clearly proved to be British as the indefiniteness of the ocean can allow, have dropped anchor impudently and harmlessly within gun-shot of a British cruiser, with the American flag flying from their mast-heads, and British bought slaves throttling under its shadow.

The United States were the first to take action on a subterfuge at once so glaring and so successful. Mr. Monroe, during the period of Mr. Canning's short but brilliant premiership, proposed an arrangement to the British court by which, through mutual concession, the right of search should be allowed to the armed cruisers of each country so far as to enable them to determine, in cases of great suspicion, whether the flag of the slaver which came under their observation was made good by the papers of the vessel itself. Mr. Canning acceded at once to the proposition, and the American minister then resident at the Court of St. James was instructed to draw up a proviso which should incorporate distinctly the views of his government. The proviso was drawn and sanctioned by the British ministry, but having, on its reception in this country, been altered verbally by the Senate in some immaterial points, the principle of the right of search remaining untouched, its final ratification by the king on its return to England was delayed, and the subject laid aside till the agitation of the late quadruple treaty. In very much the same shape as it was formerly advanced by us, it is now brought forward by Great Britain, it being proposed by Lord Palmerston and Lord Aberdeen, on behalf of their respective ministries, that a slaver sailing under a flag different from that of the cruiser which meets her should only be boarded in cases of grave suspicion; and that then, should the ship-papers bear out the flag, she should be suffered to proceed on her voyage unmolested, after compensation had been made for delay or injury.

It is not our business to fathom the merits of the controversy. Its great importance, whatever may be its issue, has, we think, been depreciated. Let it be supposed, in the first place, that the quadruple treaty be sanctioned by the United States, and that the right of search be conceded to foreign cruisers, and exercised by our own. For a very meritorious object, no doubt, for the suppression of a trade which has discredited the Christian name, and which has dishonored the American nation, we will have entered into a vast maritime league, and will be bound from the terms of the agreement and the dictates of self-interest to contribute to the police of the ocean which should thus be established, a respectable and sufficient quota. If the suppression of the slave trade be of sufficient importance to justy an alliance so extended, it is of sufficient importance to require the raising of a force adequate to carry that alliance into effect. By a statement made at the last meeting of the Colonization Society it was shown that the slave trade in the last five years has been greater

than at any similar period for the last half a century; and one half of the whole traffic is estimated to be carried on in American bottoms. In what way are the delinquents to be punished, or the traffic suppressed, without a sufficient force on the spot to vindicate the character of the country? Or in what way is the prostitution of our own flag by foreign cruisers to be checked, without vigorous action from our navy? Month after month, week after week, foreign slavers escape from their national cruisers by hoisting, when under chase, a piece of bunting striped by American colors; and while thus the penalties of the great maritime powers of the old world have been ridiculed, we have neglected to interfere and vindicate the purity of our flag. To send forth a squadron adequate for the great object in view, is not only our national duty, but will be our conventional obligation should we take part in the quadruple treaty.

But there is another view at which an entrance into such an alliance should be looked, which is worthy of still greater attention. If we concede to foreign cruisers the right of boarding our merchant ships to see if the papers carry out the flag, we should be very watchful lest the naked right be abused. Impressment, the bone for which Great Britain and the United States wrangled themselves into a protracted war, may be snatched from us under pretences the most philanthropic and the most specious. Let the boarding officers once mount the ship's sides, and would it not be a very simple stretch of office in him to capture such sailors as he should believe British by birth? Or if impressment be expressly disallowed, may not the right of search draw after it the right of judgment? If a foreign cruiser is allowed to inquire into the existence of papers corresponding to the flag which is carried by an American merchantman, may she not also decide on their validity, and thus assume the power of determining on the efficiency of our municipal laws, as well as on the confiscation on our national property? If we concede by treaty the right of search, we will be bound to station an efficient squadron over the latitudes on which the right is to be exercised. There can be imagined no step more deleterious to our national honor or our national prosperity than to enter into a compact forming a maritime police for the suppression of the slave trade, and then, not only to omit to vindicate our flag from the dishonors which its abuse has created, but to expose our commerce to the insults, the vexations, and the injuries, which the licensed scrutiny of foreign powers would invite.

But let it be supposed, on the other hand, that we recede from the position that was taken by Mr. Monroe, and refuse our assent to the proposed convention. By the strictest obligations of justice and honor, we will be bound to redouble our efforts for the extinction of the slave trade. We have since the formation of our government declared in a manner the most solemn and the most emphatic that we considered the traffic horrible and unchristian. We have pledged ourselves by ties the most sacred to assist fervently in its eradication. To the quadruple treaty our objections have been those of form, and not of principle; we have stated our sincere concurrence with the great Christian powers of the world in their detestation of the trade which the treaty was to suppress; and we have most repeatedly expressed our regret that concessions should be required in the performance of so great a task, which our sense of our primary duty as a nation prevented us from making. What then must be done the moment the alliance be rejected? To take the vindication of our laws into our own

hands, to equip a fleet sufficient to confiscate the squadrons of slavers which cross the ocean, and to show to our sister powers that we are neither too callous to detest crime, nor too weak to prevent it.

But should our sense of dignity and justice be not acute enough to urge us to the performance of so cardinal a duty, every American trader who reaches our ports on a homeward voyage will bring us intelligence of the disastrous effects of the ex-parte interpretation which so grand an interpolation in the law of nations will receive. To the concurring powers the whole superintendence of the high seas will be given; and who can doubt, who has studied the history of Great Britain during the wars which succeeded the French revolution, who remembers the storming of Copenhagen, the attack on the Chesapeake, the immurement in St. Helena, that she will execute without license that right which in convention we had refused? High constable of the seas, she will knock at the door of every merchantman whom she meets on her track; and when once entrance is gained, in the omnipotency of undisputed strength, in the privacy of the central ocean, to the province of constable, will be added those of judge and executioner. In vain may we rely on the generosity or the weakness of a rival whose heart has never been too powerful for her head, and whose arm is sinewed with the strength of two continents.

The United States, under such circumstances, will have but one course. That same Saxon courage which would prompt the attack will repel the aggressor. But putting aside the consideration of the improbability that a navy small in itself and stunted and degraded by its own government, could cope on a hasty emergency with one both vast and effective, with one which is itself equal to those of all the world together, and which in such aggressions would be stimulated and supported by all Europe,—putting aside the absurdity of forging on the spur of the moment officers, seamen, and ships adequate to stand a single cruise against so powerful an antagonist,—how unwise, how mad it would be, to provoke, by the exhibition of our own weakness, a war the first blow of which would brush our little navy from the ocean!

The last war made us foolhardy. We met then England in the lassitude of questionable victory, and in the depression of exhausted strength. Often had the trumpet been blown before the attack came, often on the distant mountains had the glitter of spears forewarned the coming attack, and by the desolation of universal war, and the precaution of our own embargo, we had but little commerce to loose. But look over the face of the ocean, how vast has been the increase since peace was proclaimed, and how huge the prize which tempts its violation! Not that we should dread the result of another collision, but how wild, in the very face of difficulty, to ground our muskets, to spike our guns, and to declare to the world by an act of solemn legislation, that we have incapacitated ourselves from defence as a preliminary to action. The navy to stand still! The very idea of standing still involves retrogression. When the hope of promotion ceases, the spirit of ambition will be gone; and no surer way could be found to damp the energies and to quell the enthusiasm of the officers in our service, than to tell them that no matter what may be their merits, no matter what may be their gallantry, we have divided them off into four little compartments of rank, and that, except in case of a straggling death or resignation, promotion from one order to another is stopped. Carried from professions on shore where every prize was held out which industry

or energy could suggest, they have been led to embark in a pursuit of the greatest sacrifice, of the greatest deprivation; and then when we have caught them, when we have reduced them finally under our power, we threaten them with a reduction of their pay; and we tell them that the possibility of promotion, which formed the star that guided their course, is clouded, that cramped in the narrow spheres into which we have crowded them they must remain for almost a lifetime of service; and then, when they have grown gray, and when their manhood has passed away in fruitless toil and expectation, the very march of time which makes them old, will probably carry off enough of their senior brethren to enable them, in their own turn, to be laid out in state in a captain's epaulettes.

The navy must grow as our wealth grows, as our commerce grows, as our country grows. From the moment of the revolution it has so grown, and with the exception of the few first years of Mr. Jefferson's administration, its growth has been uniform. Every fresh adventure of our merchant service has been supported and made successful by the presence and the name of our navy. The only war into which, as an organized government, we have been thrown, was maintained by the navy almost unassisted; and since the war, it is to the navy that we owe almost every thing we possess of reputation or of influence abroad. The immunities and the privileges of our traders in the east can be wholly attributed to the presence and co-operation of our men-of-war. Those who recollect the disgraceful reception which the Dutch ambassadors met with in China, at the beginning of the 17th century, can appreciate the weight with which a respectable demonstration of national strength bears upon the conscience of oriental royalty. Dropped down and deserted at Macao, by one of their own unassuming frigates, the representatives of their mighty highnesses, the States of Holland, were caught by the attending mandarins, were immured in bamboo bird-cages, not large enough to admit of any other posture than that of an irregular ellipse, and were carried through the principal avenues of the empire, with a standard-bearer marching before them displaying a banner on which was painted in green and gold the sentiment, "Tribute-bearers from the little governors of the west to the mighty monarch of the universe." As they approached the precincts of the court, their discomfiture was not lessened. The ko-tou, or the obeisance paid to the emperor, involving as it did three distinct prostrations of the body to the dust, together with successive blows on the head and face, was not the most tasteful exercise to magnates whose constitutional rotundity was so great as that of the Dutch ambassadors; and yet to the ko-tou were they forced to submit, not only to his celestial majesty in person, but to the apparel he had been wearing, to the chairs on which he sat, and to the spoons from which he fed. Such degradation was not conducive to the success of the embassy; and after their highnesses had parted with their presents, and had paid the exacted homage to the minutest tittle, they were caged once more in their bamboo domicils, and were carried back again to Macao, with the benefit of the solitary lesson, that in the half-civilized countries of the east, the most costly gifts and the most courteous salutations will have no effect unless they are accompanied by a respectable demonstration of national importance and of national strength.

We are at a loss to understand why the present moment should be fastened upon as our zenith. Had we reached our full growth among

nations, had the tide of our commerce turned, had the enterprise of our people commenced to ebb, and their wealth to flow backward; had the whole world subsided into a peace so profound that not a speck could be seen on the horizon, we might stint our appropriations, and tell our navy that it had reached its maximum, and that further increase was unnecessary. But how distant is so great a consummation! We are struggling still in the advent of manhood, we are clambering with vehement activity to that just position among nations which is demanded by our country, our resources, our race,—while at every throe, at every effort, we are met and checked by the opposition of foreign and rival powers. The integrity of our own territory is not yet guarantied. The right of search has been alluded to as one out of the many great points of difference between us and one alone of the leading European nations; but the right of search is still but a single item in an account yet unsettled. Have the spirit of rebellion in the Canadas, and the spirit of sympathy in the United States, effervesced with the acquittal of McLeod? Has Great Britain relinquished her claim to the plains of the Arostook, or have we surrendered their possession? Are we to dose quietly in the central states, or is our legislature to spend its sessions in reducing the buttons on a midshipman's coat, when those vast and fruitful regions which spread from the Missouri and its tributaries to the Pacific, are silently settled by a foreign power? Slowly and sleepily, when the republic has been straining at the gnats of inferior politics, have British ships drawn up to the shores of the Pacific Ocean, and have dropped their burdens in the midst of a territory which is covered on the map with the broad name of the United States. Our pioneers have melted away; our stores have been deserted; our traders have been out-marketed. Indian tribes, which were subject to us, have been seduced from their allegiance. Not a sentinel has sounded the alarm, not a ship scrutinized the movement, and we have sat quietly by while the most powerful maritime nation in the world has spread her wharves and has erected her observatories on our western coast. We are waiting till the statute of limitations shall drop its floodgates over the territory beyond the Missouri, before we assert a title which then we can redeem by nothing but a protracted war.

We do not say that now there is cause for war; but we do maintain that the emasculation of our navy will expose us at once to dismemberment. Never in our short history did we stand more in need of the sanction of a decent and an increasing maritime force. Our commerce in hazard of attack, our territory in part wheedled from us, and our internal institutions distracted, claim from us the most grave attention. The central government has but one arm which she can stretch out to vindicate her majesty abroad, to preserve her integrity at home, to succor the states when in danger of outward attack or of inward rebellion, and on that arm have we invoked the palsy. Is the affiliation of the navy with our republican institutions doubted? Standing armies may peril the sovereignty of the states or the integrity of the general government, but never yet has a suspicion clouded the most ardent patriot, that frigates could be drawn up our tideless rivers, and be marshalled over mountains and valleys, to subvert the liberties or the constitution of the land. The navy is instinct with the greatest virtues, but is utterly innocent of harm. Is it wise, at a period so critical, at a period when the expiration of an old and the adjust-

ment of a new tariff, call for increased attention to the machinery through which our revenue is filtered, at a period when discontents at home and disgusts abroad will surely be fomented,—is it wise at such a moment to stop our enlistments, and to clog the movements of the police by which our coasts are guarded? We may talk of the encroachments of the national government, but there are subjects on which the national government is by constitution supreme, and on those subjects its dignity should be inviolable. The preservation of our credit as a debt-paying people, the preservation of our reputation as a people loving order, depend upon the preservation entire of the majesty of the federal authorities of the republic within their allotted sphere. The defence of the country is exclusively committed to the national administration, and though we do not foresee disunion or civil war, the cry of one sovereign state in these difficulties of internal convulsion, the call of that state on the President for protection, should admonish us that the danger of schism will increase as the means of preventing it are diminished. Faint as may be the prospect of rebellion at the north, or at the south of a servile war, the complex constitution of our country, the danger of collision which may rise from interests so divergent, from authorities so contradictory, should enter into our consideration when we proceed to shear the government of the single guardian of its dignity abroad, and of the principal guarantee of its domestic integrity.

We feel now that we have done our duty to the navy, which from its isolation has no protector but the self-interest of the people it defends, and to the great mercantile community on whose behalf we speak. We protest with the full force which our position gives us, against the mad legislation which would rob our country of its honor, our commerce of its safety, and our navy of its strength. To the national legislature we hand back the charge, and in the leisure of retirement, in the coolness of separation, we require of its members to reflect on the measure of the blow which they have aimed. You strike, we tell them, ostensibly at the fringe of the service, but in reality you pierce its substance. General legislation in a republic, in most cases, is impotent when it outspeeds public opinion; but here you may wound most deeply where none who come after you can cure. You may equip ships in the spur of the moment, you may sweep a full marine from the decks of merchantmen into your recruiting ships, but who can create and discipline officers of gallantry and seamanship, in the paralysis of a sudden attack? Pay may be cut down and promotion obstructed till your captains become the skippers of the ocean; but never, then, when the time comes for action, never can you restore their ancient bearing. We ask you to draw back, to stop before the wound is widened. Our commerce needs increased supervision, our coast increased protection, our honor increased support. To you, as the constituted guardians of the republic, does her defence belong, and on you do we call, therefore, to protect her wealth, her character, and her territory from the depredations which the ostentation of her imbecility will provoke.

Art. IV.—IRELAND: ITS RESOURCES AND COMMERCE.

Geographical position—Rivers—Face of the country—Geology—Soil and climate—Civil divisions—Lakes—Population—Emigration—Progress of the temperance movement—Occupations of the people—Agriculture—Manufactures—Internal improvements—Commerce—Exports and imports, etc. etc.

The history, literature, and character of the people of Ireland, as well as the fame of her heroes and statesmen, are as familiar as household words to Americans, and the names of Burke, Grattan, Moore, Curran, Emmet, Edgeworth, Wellington, O'Connell, and a host of others, are inseparably associated with "the Emerald Isle." In consequence, however, of the concerns of Ireland being intermingled with those of Great Britain as a part of the British empire, it is believed that but few among us are well informed as to its relative importance in the commercial scale. We have, therefore, compiled from authentic sources the following sketch of the resources, condition, and commerce of Ireland; commencing with a brief description of the country.

Ireland is separated from Great Britain by St. George's Channel, the Irish Sea, and the North Channel, and is washed on every other side by the Atlantic. It is distant only thirteen and a half miles from the nearest point in Scotland, and forty-seven miles from St. David's Head in Wales. The island lies between 51 deg. 25 min. and 55 deg. 23 min. north latitude, and 6 deg. and 11 deg. west longitude from London. Its greatest length is 306 miles, its greatest breadth 207 miles, and the area 31,875 square miles, or 20,399,608 acres. The deep indentation of the western and northern coasts, by bays, gulfs, and estuaries, some of them communicating with inland lakes, causes every part of the island to be within fifty or fifty-five miles of the sea or one of its arms. The extent of coast is about 250 leagues, and there are fourteen harbors for the largest ships, seventeen for frigates, forty for coasting vessels, and twenty-four good summer roads.

Rivers.—The principal rivers of Ireland are the Shannon, Barrow, Nore, Boyne, Liffey, Slaney, Suir, Blackwater, Lee, Bandon, Bann, Foyle, and their branches. Flowing generally through a flat country, they are rarely rapid and but seldom interrupted by cataracts or ledges of rock. They are mostly navigable a considerable distance, and sometimes, as the Shannon and the Barrow, nearly to their sources, and consequently give great facilities to commerce. The Shannon has a southwesterly course of 220 miles, flowing by Limerick, and its importance has been increased by its junction with the canals from Dublin. The Liffey rises in the Wicklow mountains, and has a circuitous course to Dublin bay. The Barrow, Suir, and Nore, have their embouchure in Waterford harbor. Owing to its favorable situation as the natural emporium of a rich and extensive country, Waterford has a great and increasing trade. The Bandon, Lee, and Blackwater rivers run nearly parallel to each other, in the southern part of the island; the Bandon falling into the sea near Kinsale, the Lee at Cork harbor, and the Blackwater at Youghall. Salmon abound in these three rivers. The port of Drogheda is at the mouth of the Boyne. The river Foyle is navigable for ships to Londonderry, and the Bann for boats to Coleraine. The Slaney falls into an arm of the sea near Wexford, and is navigable for barges fourteen miles.

Lakes.—Ireland has a large number of lakes, provincially called *loughs*.

The largest, *Lough Neagh*, is seventeen miles long by nine in width. Loughs *Erne*, *Corrib*, *Mask*, *Conn*, and the picturesque *Lakes of Killarney*, are extensive sheets of water, and with many others are celebrated by tourists. The total area of the Irish lakes amounts, according to Mr. Griffith, to 455,399 acres.

Face of the Country, Geology, Soil, and Climate.—Though some parts of Ireland are hilly and others mountainous, such is not the general character of the country. Several of the counties have a level surface, and others are quite flat. With the exception of the Wicklow mountains, and those of Mourne in Down, the most mountainous parts are on the west coast. The highest mountain is Gurrane Tual, near Killarney, 3,404 feet above the sea. The highest of the Wicklow mountains is 3,039 feet above the sea. There are various other elevations from 1,500 to 3,000 feet in height. Generally they are of easy ascent, admitting of cultivation a considerable way up their sides. From Dublin to the Bay of Galway a vast plain stretches across the kingdom, consisting partly of rich cultivated land; but it contains within it a number of very extensive *Bogs*. These bogs consist of moist vegetable matter, covered more or less with unproductive vegetables and containing much stagnant water. Some are, of course, more or less wet than others. The extent of peat soil in Ireland exceeds 2,830,000 English acres, of which at least 1,576,000 consist of flat red bog, and 1,255,000 acres form the covering of mountains. Many attempts have been made to drain and cultivate these bogs, without much success. They are, however, of considerable importance, (in the scarcity of timber and coal,) as means of furnishing the mass of the people with an inexhaustible supply of *peat* or *turf* as a cheap fuel.

The geology of the island has been but imperfectly explored, and part of its surface, containing nearly 3,000,000 of acres, being covered with turf bogs to the depth of from five to thirty feet, conceal many of its mineral treasures. Sufficient, however, is known to exhibit the leading features of the physical structure and mineral geography of the country. The soil consists for the most part of a fertile loam, resting upon a substratum of limestone. In the lower beds of the great central limestone district, very beautiful black marble occurs, which forms an article of export; brown and statuary marble are also found in Fermanagh, Donegal, and Galway. Granite becomes the surface rock in Donegal, Down, and Wicklow. Mines of lead and copper abound in the Leinster granite; and alluvial gold, in small quantities, has been found in the county of Wicklow. Green serpentine is found in Connaught, and two quarries are now worked. Iron-stone is found in the same province. There are eight principal coal fields in Ireland; bituminous coal is found in the northern part, and anthracite coal in the southern. The collieries of the latter in Kilkenny and Queens counties now annually produce about 120,000 tons. In the county of Antrim is found the most extensive range of *basalt* in Europe.

Most of the coal consumed in Ireland is obtained from England and Wales. The manufactories in the north are principally supplied with English coal at about twelve shillings per ton, delivered at Belfast. The great mass of the Irish population will probably be dependent for many ages on the peat bogs for fuel.

In point of natural fertility, Mr. Young is decidedly of opinion that Ireland is, acre for acre, superior to England, but the proportion of waste land is much larger in Ireland. All that portion of the soil which rests

on a calcareous and rocky subsoil never deteriorates, but when let alone rapidly improves and clothes itself with the finest herbage. The country is said to have been formerly covered with timber, but is now remarkably the reverse; there not being in many extensive districts a natural wood plantation or even a hedge to be seen. The climate is much more temperate than that of England under the same latitude; but the atmosphere derives a perpetual moisture from the Atlantic. The prevailing winds are from the west and southwest, and the influence of the Atlantic Ocean renders the winters mild as to temperature, but stormy and rainy, preventing the continuance of frost, promoting vegetation, giving the face of the country a verdant appearance, increasing fertility, and producing more irregularity in the seasons and weather than in England. All the productions of the soil usually cultivated in England may be raised in Ireland, but the irregularity of the seasons and weather renders the produce more uncertain. Much of the grain of Ireland could not be preserved unless it were kiln dried. The climate, as respects the human constitution, is, upon the whole, highly salubrious.

Civil Divisions.—Ireland is divided into four provinces, which are subdivided into thirty-two counties, and these again into *Baronies, Parishes, and Townlands.*

The division into provinces was for ecclesiastical purposes, previous to the invasion of Ireland by the English in the reign of Henry the Second, in 1172. The following is a comparative table of the provinces:

Provinces.	*Counties.*	*Baronies.*	*Parishes.*	*Square miles.*	*Cultivated acres.*	*Unimproved, mountain & bog.*
Leinster,	12	97	992	7,472	4,144,160	635,424
Munster,	6	59	816	9,187	3,929,852	1,905,368
Ulster,	9	54	332	8,450	3,754,352	1,469,922
Connaught,	5	42	296	6,765	2,805,109	1,330,022
Total,	32	252	2,436	31,874	14,603,473	5,340,736

Recapitulation of area in acres—

Cultivated,	14,603,473
Uncultivated, mountain, and bog,	5,340,736
Lakes,	455,399
Total area,	20,399,608

Islands.—The islands belonging to Ireland are 196 in number, of which 140 are inhabited, containing about 45,000 souls.

Population.—The original inhabitants of Ireland are generally admitted to have belonged to the great Celtic family. The question whether the island was first colonized by emigrants from Britain, Gaul, or Spain, has been much agitated. Mr. McCulloch says, "the fair presumtion seems to be that the original population of Ireland was principally derived from Britain, but partially also from Gaul."

The first permanent change in the population of Ireland was not effected till its invasion by the English under Henry II, in 1172. But the number of English settlers in Ireland was, for a long period, inconsiderable. In the reign of Elizabeth, the Irish, under the Earl of Tyrone, raised a formidable rebellion, which was suppressed by the exertions of Lord Mountjoy, the English deputy, who succeeded for the first time in estab-

lishing the English authority in most parts of the island. In the following reign some of the laws and customs of the Irish were abolished, and the greater part of the lands in Ulster being forfeited to the crown, were assigned to companies of the city of London and others, by whom great numbers of English and Scotch colonists were settled upon them. Dissensions afterwards arose between the Catholics and Protestants, and in 1641 an insurrection broke out, in which many of the English inhabitants were destroyed, and their power nearly annihilated. The English ascendancy in Ireland was again partially restored during the latter part of the reign of Charles I., and their supremacy completely re-established under Cromwell. In consequence of the prevalence of Catholicism in Ireland, the people generally espoused the cause of the Stuarts. But the arms of William III. being successful, the revolutionary government was established there as well as in England in 1690.

The first authentic account of the population of Ireland was given by Sir William Petty, an officer under Cromwell, in 1672. Being employed to superintend the survey and valuation of the forfeited estates, he had the best means of obtaining accurate information of the numbers and condition of the people. The following extracts from his work on the subject are interesting.

"The number of people now in Ireland (1672) is about 1,100,000, viz: 300,000 English, Scotch, and Welch protestants, and 800,000 papists; whereof one fourth are children unfit for labor, and 75,000 of the remainder are, by reason of their quality and estates, above the necessity of corporeal labor; so as there remains 750,000 laboring men and women, 500,000 whereof do perform the present work of the nation.

"The said 1,100,000 do live in about 200,000 families or houses, whereof there are about 16,000 which have more than one chimney in each, and about 24,000 which have but one; all the other houses, being 160,000, are wretched, nasty cabins, without chimney, window, or doorshut; even worse than those of the savage Americans, and wholly unfit for the making merchantable butter, cheese, or the manufactures of woollen, linen, or leather.

"By comparing the extent of the territory with the number of people, it appears that Ireland is much underpeopled; forasmuch as there are above ten acres (Irish) of good land to every head in Ireland; whereas in England and France there are but four, and in Holland scarce one!"—(*Pol. Anatomy of Ireland*, ed. 1719.)

This account of the numbers and former condition of the Irish people, explains the cause why they have been unable to contend successfully with the superior numbers and power of England. Various estimates of the population of Ireland, some of which are obviously on a very imperfect basis, have been made at successive periods, but no official census appears to have been taken until 1813, which census was found deficient in several counties. The following table of the different estimates and censuses will give some idea of the progress of population.

Year.	*Population.*	*Authorities.*
1695,	1,034,102.	Estimate by Captain South.
1712,	2,099,094.	Do. by Mr. Dobbs, on the basis of 6 inhabitants
1726,	2,309,106.	to a house.
1731,	2,010,221.	Inquiry by the Irish House of Lords.

Year.	*Population.*	*Authorities.*
1754,	2,372,634.	Returns of the Hearth-money collectors, on the basis of 6 inhabitants to each house.
1767,	2,544,276.	
1777,	2,690,556.	
1785,	2,845,932.	
1788,	4,040,000.	Estimate of Mr. Parker Bushe.
1805,	5,395,456.	Do. of Mr. Newenham.
1813,	5,937,858.	Census, (incomplete.)
1821,	6,801,827.	Complete census.
1831,	7,767,401.	Do. do.
1841,	8,205,382.	Do. do.

These statements show that the population has increased since 1785 with great rapidity. "The wealth of the country has been also, no doubt, (says McCulloch) materially augmented since that epoch, but we doubt whether it has increased in a corresponding proportion. The condition of the great bulk of the people seems to be nearly as depressed at this moment as at any former period." The bounty acts of 1783 and 1784, seem to have given the first considerable stimulus to the population. These acts granted high bounties on the exportation of grain and other produce. Previously Ireland was essentially a grazing country, but no sooner had the bounty acts passed than the pasturage system began to give place to tillage. The pasture lands had been generally let to opulent graziers in immense tracts, requiring only a few individuals to feed and take care of the cattle. The size of the farms was greatly reduced under the tillage system, and the new occupiers were glad to buy whatever labor they could obtain by granting the peasantry allotments of small pieces of ground, whereon they might erect cabins and raise potatoes. The demand thus created for agricultural labor acted as a great stimulus to increase the population, which was also affected by other causes. "The passion for acquiring political influence prevails," says Mr. Wakefield, "throughout the whole country; and to divide and subdivide, for the purpose of making freeholders, is the great object of every owner of land." There are throughout Ireland numerous instances of farms from 300 to 500 acres, let from 40 to 50 years ago to single tenants, now divided among 30 or 40 families, by means of the repeated divisions that have taken place in consequence of the death of fathers, the marriage of children, the introduction of sub-tenants, &c. "The almost universal dependence placed by the population on the potato," says Mr. McCulloch, "has also contributed to increase its numbers. Potatoes may be raised with very little difficulty, in any quantity and on almost any species of soil. A given extent of land planted with potatoes, will support at least double the number of persons that it would do were it planted with wheat or any species of corn, and five or six times the number that it would support were it employed to produce butchers' meat. Hence it is that a country like Ireland, the great bulk of the people of which subsist almost wholly on potatoes, may have an exceedingly dense population, without extensive manufactures, large towns, or any trade save the exportation of raw produce." The increase of population has been most rapid in those parts of the country that are least improved. Thus from 1821 to 1831, the increase in Leinster was only 9 per cent, although that province contains Dublin, Drogheda, Kilkenny, and other large towns, while in Connaught the increase was 22 per cent. A comparatively small part of the population inhabit the prin-

cipal cities and towns. In the 26 largest of these places, in 1831, the total population was 724,628, (inhabiting 86,167 houses, or over eight to a house.) This was less than one tenth of the population of Ireland.*

We have not at present the particulars of the census of 1841, but we have before stated the summary as returned at 8,205,382, showing an increase in the last ten years of 437,981, or about 5½ per cent. In the preceding ten years, from 1821 to 1831, the increase was 14½ per cent.

The following table shows the population of each province in 1831, with the number of English statute acres, exclusive of lakes, the number of inhabited houses, and the number of acres corresponding to each family.

Provinces.	*Population.*	*No. of acres.*	*Inhabited houses.*	*Average number of acres to each family.*
Leinster,	1,909,713	4,749,584	292,729	13¾
Munster,	2,227,152	5,835,220	330,444	15½
Ulster,	2,286,622	5,224,274	402,005	12¼
Connaught,	1,343,914	4,135,121	224,638	17¼
Total,	7,767,401	19,949,209	1,249,816	$14\frac{4}{10}$

Males 3,794,880; females 3,972,521; males 20 years old and upwards 1,867,765.

Total number of families . . .	1,385,066
Average number of persons to each family . .	$5\frac{6}{10}$
Do. do. do. to each house . .	$6\frac{2}{10}$
Do. do. of acres to each person . .	$2\frac{567}{1000}$

In England, in 1831, there were $2\frac{666}{1000}$ acres to every individual, including all the large cities and towns, and in Scotland 8 acres to each individual.

History makes no mention of a country more populous in proportion to its extent than Ireland, and certainly there is none now in existence which approaches to its density.*

The subject of emigration is important as connected with population; but we have no means of ascertaining the immense numbers who annually leave Ireland to settle in foreign countries, besides those who seek employment in the large cities and towns of England and Scotland. The following numbers departed from Irish ports for Quebec and Montreal only, in four years, viz:

1831	34,135
1832	28,204
1833	12,013
1834	19,206
Total,	93,558

Similar tables might be made up, however imperfect, of emigration in various years, to the above and other ports in different quarters of the world. For the 6 years from 1832 to 1837, the average annual emigration from Ireland was 26,586, viz:

* Alison on Population.

To Canada, Nova Scotia, &c.	22,399
United States	3,893
Australia	294

It is understood that the emigration from Ireland to America during the present year, bids fair to exceed all former years. Large numbers of the Irish enlist in the British army and navy. The following were the proportions of English, Scotch, and Irish in the British army in 1830 and 1840:

	1830.	1840.
English . . .	40,649	47,394
Scotch . . .	11,774	13,388
Irish . . .	40,979	39,193
Total,	93,462	99,975

The success of the temperance cause in Ireland, for several years past, owing principally to the exertions of Father Matthew, a Catholic priest, has had a great effect in meliorating the condition of the people. This is shown by the following comparative amounts of duties paid on spirituous and malt liquors in Ireland for 3 years:

	1838.	1839.	1840.
Excise duty on malt,	£289,969	£242,561	£200,108
Do. on Irish spirits,	1,510,092	1,402,130	1,032,582
Customs duty on spirits,	29,479	26,362	22,368
Do. on wines,	192,618	181,253	162,088
Total,	£2,022,158	£1,852,106	£1,417,146

The malt and Irish spirits duties indicate the consumption of fermented liquors and whiskey by the poorer classes; and the customs duties on foreign wines and spirits, the consumption by the richer classes. The returns from England and Scotland show an *increase* of duties on the former, and a *decrease* on the latter during the above 3 years.

The Dublin Morning Register gives the amount of duties on Irish whiskey paid in 1841, at £964,711, which shows a decrease of £545,381 since 1838; while the duty paid on *tea* had increased from £453,924 in 1840, to £534,563 in 1841. The total revenue collected in Ireland in 1840, was £4,107,866; in 1841, £4,198,689—showing a decided improvement, notwithstanding the decrease of duties on spirits.

The following is a table of the population of the ecclesiastical provinces into which Ireland is divided, which was furnished by the commissioners of inquiry into the state of instruction, in 1834:

Provinces.	*Roman Catholics.*	*Members of Church of Engl'd.*	*Presbyterians.*	*Other Protestants.*
Armagh,	1,955,123	517,722	638,073	15,823
Dublin,	1,063,681	177,930	2,517	3,162
Cashel,	2,220,340	111,813	966	2,454
Tuam,	1,188,568	44,599	800	369
Total,	6 427,712	852,064	642,356	21.808

Proportions in every 100 *persons*—

Roman Catholics	85
Members of Church of England . . .	10
Presbyterians and others	5
	100

The tithes collected for the benefit of the Church of England, vary from 1d. to 4s. per acre. The Catholics pay for the support of their own parish priests as follows, in the barony of Kilconnel: the large landholders usually 40s. a year, and the small tenants from 2s. to 5s.—more than one third of the parishioners pay nothing at all. The receipts of the Catholic priests from all sources do not exceed £60 a year.

Occupations of the people.—The following are the numbers of males over 20 years of age in Ireland employed in different pursuits, by the census of 1831.

Agriculture—			
Occupiers employing laborers,	95,339		
Do. not employing do.	564,274		*Proportion*
Laborers in agriculture,	567,441		*in* 100.
		1,227,054 . . .	65.7
Trade, manufactures, &c.—			
Operatives in manufactures or machinery,	25,746		
Employed in retail trade, or in mechanics, as masters or workmen,	298,838		
		324,584 . . .	17.4
Other classes—			
Capitalists, bankers, professional and other educated men,	61,514		
Laborers, not agricultural,	89,876		
Other males, except servants,	110,595		
Male servants, over 20,	54,142		
		316,127 . . .	16.9
Total . . .		1,867,765	100.

From the reports presented to Parliament by commissioners appointed since the passing of the reform bill, to inquire into the condition of the people of Ireland, it appears "that agricultural wages vary from 6d. to 1s. a day; that the average of the country in general is about 8½d.; and that the earnings of the laborers on an average of the whole class are from 2s. to 2s. 6d. a week, or thereabouts, for the whole year round." These calculations are made from a table which shows the wages of agricultural laborers in the different counties of Ireland, and the amount of their earnings in the year. This table gives an average employment of about 22 weeks, of six working days each, to the whole of the laborers on hire, who are therefore destitute of employment during 30 weeks in the year. In Great Britain the earnings of an agricultural laborer average from 8s. to 10s. a week. The commissioners say—"A great portion of them (the laborers and their families) are insufficiently provided with the commonest necessaries of life. Some go in search of employment to Great

Britain during the harvest, others wander through Ireland with the same view. The wives and children of many are occasionally obliged to beg; they do so reluctantly and with shame, and in general go to a distance from home, that they may not be known. With these facts before us, we cannot hesitate to state that we consider remedial measures requisite to ameliorate the condition of the Irish poor."

In the parts of the country where manufactures are carried on, the condition of the people appears to be much better than in other sections. Wherever the linen trade is in operation the people have constant employment, in consequence of being able to fall back upon their looms when agricultural work is not in demand. They may be said in common years to enjoy a competency; that is, a sufficiency of food, raiment, and fuel.

Agriculture.—The English, when they conquered Ireland, became the principal landholders, and under Cromwell confiscated all the territorial possessions of the Catholics. Lord Clare, Chancellor of Ireland in 1810, declared that since 1640 fifteen sixteenths of the soil of Ireland had been confiscated at different times. From 1640 to 1788 the Catholics were not allowed to possess landed property, and the lands passed to the nearest Protestant relative by right of primogeniture, from male to male. Thus nearly the whole of the lands in Ireland became the prey of the English, but their irritated vassals kept up a warfare with them, and they were unable to reside upon their estates. In order to derive from their lands some revenue, they had therefore no alternative but to let them to *middle men*, who sub-let them in smaller portions, leaving to the under tenants the power to divide and sub-let them still further. It thus appears that the feature which distinguishes Ireland from England and Scotland is, that in the former country the proprietors of the soil, to this day, let it in small portions, whilst in Great Britain the land is only let in large farms.

The bad effect of this system in Ireland is shown by the commissioners in the report before referred to. The complaints against the exactions of the middle men are general, and the lands are let to the peasantry at exorbitant prices, frequently at £2 10s. to £3 per acre a year, and in many instances much higher rates are paid. The leases are generally for short terms, and the land on these small farms is badly cultivated. In part of the provinces of Leinster and Munster the commissioners found the following results of their inquiries as to the size of the farms:—

Under one acre	1,607 farms.
From 1 to 5	4,729 "
" 5 " 10	3,492 "
" 10 " 20	3,017 "
" 20 " 80	2,957 "
" 80 " 100	253 "
" 100 and upwards . . .	369 "
Total,	16,424

The commissioners observe that those farmers who rent only five or six acres are so ignorant that they do not derive from the soil a third of what it is capable of producing, and that more than one third of the whole island is cultivated by spade husbandry. The small tenants are the most numerous, but great portions of the soil are held by large grazing farmers, the general tendency throughout Ireland being to diminish the quantity of tillage in the large farms. If the farmers had the necessary capital for

the proper cultivation of the mountain tracts, this part of the country would be the most valuable. In general the soil of Ireland is of the best quality, but it deteriorates under the bad system of cultivation. The small farmers alone cultivate grain for market. Formerly flax was extensively cultivated, but since the introduction of machinery, the manufacturers have found it more advantageous to import flax from Holland and Russia. For the few past years the crops of flax having failed on the continent, its cultivation has been resumed in the north of Ireland. In Ulster province tillage is generally in an improved state. The grain crops most generally are oats, barley, bere, and some wheat. Potatoes and flax are also cultivated, as well as turnips and other vegetables. In proportion to the spread of capital, the rearing and fattening of cattle increases. In the neighborhood of Dublin the cultivation of artificial grasses begins to spread, but potatoes are the principal crop. In some of the districts the number of sheep raised has increased, and improvements have taken place in the breeds and in the wool. The best dairy farms are in the vicinity of Cork. The agricultural produce of Ireland exported, amounting annually to over £11,000,000,* (or $52,800,000) as seen by the table of exports which we give below, shows the value and importance of this branch of industry. The annual value of the agricultural produce of Ireland is estimated at £36,000,000, ($172,800,000) while that of Great Britain is estimated at £150,000,000. Mr. Couling, an engineer, in 1827 gave the following estimate before a committee of the House of Commons, relative to Ireland:

Arable land and Gardens. Acres	*Meadows, Pastures, and Marshes.* Acres	*Waste, capable of improvement.* Acres.	*Incapable of improvement.* Acres.
5,389,040	6,736,240	4,900,000	2,416,664

Manufactures.—The principal manufactures of Ireland for many years have been that of linen. During the reigns of Charles I. and II. much attention was paid to them. The Duke of Ormond and others in those reigns were particularly instrumental in establishing the linen trade. It rose to still greater importance in the reign of William III. from the compact between the English and Irish merchants to discourage the woollen and promote the linen trade. The English woollen manufacturers also procured a statute to be passed, levying additional duty on Irish woollen goods, from a jealous fear that the latter trade was inconsistent with the welfare of that of England. Considerable sums have been from time to time voted by Parliament for the support of the linen manufacture, and during the 18th century it continued to advance until checked by the American war. After the peace it revived, and was at its greatest height from 1792 to 1796. It is now a flourishing department of industry. Belfast is the great centre to which most of the linens are sent for sale, and from thence large quantities are exported to foreign countries. Belfast was the seat of the first cotton manufactory introduced into Ireland, where, in 1794, a mill for spinning cotton twist by water was erected, and so rapidly did it spread, that in 1800, in a circuit of ten miles it gave employment to 27,000 individuals. But from want of protection the trade has declined, and Ireland has been inundated with English manufactures. The cotton manufacture may now be considered as extinct in Ireland, with the exception

* The agricultural exports of the United States in 1840, exclusive of cotton, amounted to $28,655,032 only.

of a few establishments in Belfast and its vicinity. No returns have been given since the year 1825, when the total number of pounds of raw cotton imported into Ireland was 4,065,930, and of cotton yarn imported thither from Great Britain in the same year, 41,953,156. The *woollen* manufacture is still carried on in Dublin and its vicinity on a small scale, extending principally to the manufacture of coarse fabrics, hearth rugs, and carpeting. The *silk* manufacture was introduced by the French refugees, and about 1693 fully established by them in the liberties of Dublin. In 1774 an act was passed placing it under the direction of the Dublin Society, which opened a silk warehouse. But this act was ruined by an act passed about 1786, prohibiting any of the funds of the Dublin Society from being applied to support any house selling Irish goods. Hundreds of people were by this act thrown out of employment. In 1809 there were, however, still 3,760 hands engaged in it, but when the protecting duties were taken off in 1821, and steam communication opened with England, the Irish market was inundated with goods at a smaller price than that at which the native fabric could be produced, and thus the ruin of the trade was accomplished. The tabinet fabric, of silk and worsted, for which Dublin has long been famous, is the only branch of the silk business which has not suffered from these discouragements. At present silk tabareas of great beauty, and rich silk velvets, equal to French, are manufactured in Dublin.

There are a few paper mills in Ireland, which in 1834 manufactured 1,873,625 *lbs.* of first class, and 457,508 *lbs.* of second class paper, paying an excise duty of £26,279. The number of distillers and rectifiers of spirits in 1834 was 106, and of brewers of ale and porter 255. The quantity of malt made in 1837 was 284,418 quarters, in 1840 it was 175,764 quarters.

The manufactures of hardware, earthenware, leather, glass, and other articles not enumerated, are inconsiderable.

Statement of manufactories of wool, cotton, linen, and silk, in Ireland in 1835—

	Factories.	*Persons employed.*
Wool	36	1,523
Cotton	28	4,311
Linen	25	3,681
Silk	1	49

It will be observed that this table does not include the number of persons employed in manufactures made in families and not in factories, such as linens particularly.

Fisheries.—The salt-water fisheries of Ireland cannot be said to have ever thriven. The river fisheries form, in many parts of the country, a lucrative source of property. The lakes and rivers abound with trout, pike, perch, eels, and char, and on some of the rivers are established very successful salmon fisheries. The salmon exported to London and Liverpool are packed with ice in boxes. There is on the Shannon an active fishery for trout, herrings, &c., and abundance of excellent fish are sent to Limerick and other markets. On the coast of Cork there is a fishery for pilchards, herrings, and other kinds of fish.

Internal improvements.—The *Grand Canal* is the most important work of the kind in Ireland, extending from Dublin to the Shannon, 87 miles, and including a western extension and various branches its total length

is about 156 miles. The *Royal Canal* also connects Dublin harbor with the river Shannon, and is 83 miles in length. The *Limerick Navigation*, *River Barrow Navigation*, *River Boyne Navigation*, *Newry Navigation*, and *Lagan Navigation*, are various improvements of rivers, by canals and slack-water navigation, all constructed at great expense.

A system of *Railroads* for Ireland has been proposed by government, but is not yet carried into effect. The only railroads in operation are a few short ones running from Dublin and Belfast to adjacent places.

Commerce.—The principal commerce of Ireland is carried on with Great Britain. In 1825, the value of exports to all countries amounted to £9,101,956, of which only £697,667 were exported to foreign countries, £8,404,289 being sent to Great Britain. The following table shows the trade between Great Britain and Ireland during part of the last century, according to Lord Sheffield.

Year.	*Exports from Ireland to England.* (*Annual average of 10 years.*)	*Imports from England into Ireland.*
1710	£290,429	£288,809
1720	362,121	348,551
1730	328,086	489,547
1740	377,588	667,505
1750	612,000	872,259
1760	734,548	1,068,983
1770	1,032,436	1,818,595
1780	1,412,130	1,897,001
	Exports from Ireland to Scotland.	*Imports from Scotland into Ireland.*
1781	£195,685	£305,167
1782	149,889	201,182

The same authority gives the following statement as the quantity of provisions exported from Ireland to America and the West Indies in 1776:

Beef	203,685 bbls.
Pork	72,714 do.
Bacon	24,502 flitches.
Butter	272,411 cwt.
Tongues	67,284
Herrings	15,192 bbls.
Oats	93,679 quarters.
Oatmeal	39,428 barrels.

Parliamentary reports, since the union, give the value of produce and merchandise that have been the objects of trade between Great Britain and Ireland, in various years, as follows:

	Imports into Ireland from Great Britain.	*Exports from Ireland to Great Britain.*
1801	£3,270,350	£3,537,725
1805	4,067,717	4,288,167
1809	5,316,557	4,588,305
1813	6,746,353	5,410,326
1817	4,722,766	5,696,613
1821	5,338,838	7,117,452
1825	7,048,936	8,531,355

No account of this trade can be given for any year subsequent to 1825,

the commercial intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland having at the end of that year been assimilated by law to the coasting traffic carried on between the different ports of England; and with the single exception of grain, we have now no official register of the quantity or value of goods or produce received from or sent to Ireland.

The following estimate however is from a parliamentary document, showing the total exports from Ireland to Great Britain and foreign countries, in 1835.

Exports of Ireland in the year 1835.

		Quantity.	*Value.*
Cows and oxen,	No.	98,150	£793,837
Horses,	"	4,655	65,453
Sheep,	"	125,452	199,986
Swine,	"	376,191	893,839
Wheat,	quarters,	420,522	812,441
Barley,	"	168,946	210,756
Oats,	"	1,575,984	1,661,953
Other grain	"	39,637	75,149
Wheat-meal, flour, and oat-meal,	cwts.	1,984,480	1,441,966
Potatoes,	"	223,398	17,537
Provisions, viz:—			
Bacon and hams,	"	379,111	882,158
Beef and pork,	"	370,172	723,935
Butter,	"	827,009	3,316,306
Lard,	"	70,267	182,013
Eggs,			156,039
Feathers,	cwts.	6,432	32,636
Hides and calf-skins,	No.	57,657	45,831
Wool, (sheep and lambs,)	lbs.	769,184	18,562
Flax and tow,	cwts.	163,949	402,773
Total agricultural produce,			11,933,170
Lead and copper ore,	cwts.	477,660	179,388
Spirits,	gallons,	459,473	75,505
Beer,	"	2,686,688	138,981
Linen manufactures,	yards,	70,209,572	3,725,054
Do. do.	bxs. and bales,	141	5,800
Cotton do.			146,913
Cotton yarn,	lbs.	13,428	1,220
Silk manufactures,	yards,	8,400	21,740
Woollen do.	"	100,320	40,128
Other articles,			369,294
			16,637,193
Foreign and colonial merchandise,			110,489
Total exports in 1835,			£16,747,682
Total exports in 1825,			9,101,956
Increase,			7,645,726

From 1799 to 1806, the quantity of wheat exported from Ireland to

Great Britain was 44,877 quarters, and 222,030 quarters of oats and oatmeal; while from 1806 to 1827, the annual average exports to the same were 382,533 quarters of wheat, and 1,087,314 quarters of oats and oatmeal. From 1800 to 1819, a period of 20 years, the exports of wheat from Ireland to Great Britain amounted to 2,096,768 quarters, while in the 6 years from 1820 to 1825, inclusive, the exports were greater than for the preceding 20 years, amounting to 2,589,945 quarters. Previous to 1806, Ireland had been treated as a colony, but in that year an act passed permitting the free interchange of grain between Great Britain and Ireland.

The exports of grain to Great Britain were as follows from 1837 to 1841:

	Wheat.	*Other grain.*
1837 . .	534,465 quarters.	2,495,828 quarters.
1838 . .	542,583 " . .	2,931,719 "
1839 . .	258,381 " . .	1,984,818 "
1840 . .	174,440 " . .	2,153,526 "
1841 . .	218,708 " . .	2,636,817 "

Number of vessels registered in Ireland in 1840, 1,969—183,854 tons: employing 11,927 men and boys.

Vessels built in Ireland in 1840; 42—tons 3,115.

Customhouse duties collected at the principal ports in Ireland in 1836 and 1840:

	1836.	1840.
Dublin . . .	£898,630 . .	£889,564
Belfast . . .	366,718 . .	365,023
Cork . . .	230,904 . .	256,612
Limerick . . .	146,222 . .	169,490
Waterford . . .	137,126 . .	196,388
Londonderry . .	99,652 . .	103,900
Newry . . .	58,806 . .	44,039
Sligo . . .	35,863 . .	32,689
Galway . . .	31,769 . .	27,465

Banking capital in Ireland in 1840, £4,926,511; circulation about 6 millions sterling. Dividends from 8 to 9 per cent.

Savings banks: amount of investments in 1837,		£1,829,226
Do.	do. in 1840,	2,206,733
	Increase in three years,	377,507

Art. V.—COMMERCIAL VOYAGES AND DISCOVERIES.

CHAPTER V.

EARLY VOYAGES OF THE ENGLISH—WINDHAM—CHARTERS GRANTED BY ELIZABETH—VOYAGE OF CAPTAIN LOK TO THE COAST OF GUINEA—VOYAGES OF WILLIAM TOURSON, MERCHANT, OF LONDON—LIST OF GOODS USED IN THE GUINEA TRADE.

AMONG the earliest to follow in the footsteps of the adventurous Portuguese, were the English. As soon as it was known that the voyages to the coast of Africa were profitable, preparations were made to take a share in it. The first attempt was made by John Fentam and William Fabian in 1481, who commenced fitting out a fleet of vessels for the Guinea trade. Upon the representations, however, of the king of Portugal, who sent a special embassy to the English monarch, the expedition was prohibited from leaving the English ports, and the design was accordingly abandoned. It was supposed that the projected voyage was principally on Spanish account. The Duke Medina Sidonia was said to have been largely interested and to have taken this way of evading, through the help of the English, the exclusive grant made by the pope of the African coast to the Portuguese.

For some time after this, the English gave up all attempts at infringing what were represented to be Portuguese rights, and exerted themselves to discover some other passage to the east. They however extended their voyages to the south as far as the Canaries. In Hakluyt is preserved the contents of a letter written by Nicholas Thorne, merchant in Bristol, in 1526, apprising Thomas Mindal, his factor residing at St. Lucas in Spain, that the Christopher, of Cadiz, bound to the West Indies, had on board several packs of cloth, with packthread, soap, and other goods, which she was to land on the way at Teneriffe, to be exchanged for orchilla sugar and kid-skins. From this it would seem that a trade of the kind had been carried on for some time previous.

In 1551, Captain Thomas Windham made a voyage to Morocco, the only notice of which is in a letter written by James Alday preserved in Hakluyt's collection. The year after, Windham made a voyage to the same ports, Saffe and Santa Cruz. This excited the anger of the Portuguese, who were loud in their threats of violence if they caught the English again in that quarter. Notwithstanding which, Windham in the succeeding year conducted an expedition of three ships and a hundred and forty men to the coast of Guinea. The adventure was however very unfortunate, Windham and most of his men dying from the effects of the climate.

A profitable voyage was made in 1554, by John Lok, who succeeded in obtaining a quantity of gold, ivory, &c., which soon induced others to enter into the trade, which was conducted in defiance of the Portuguese authorities, with whom the adventurers were continually at strife.

In 1585, Queen Elizabeth issued a patent creating a company for the Barbary trade; in 1588, another for the Guinea; and in 1592, another charter was granted for the coast in the neighborhood of Sierra Leone. Under the influence of these charters, which ultimately gave rise to the Royal African Company, the trade with Guinea began to be flourishing and important. Voyages were made, regular narratives of a number of which have been preserved in Hakluyt and other collections. Our space

will enable us to abridge and condense only a few of the most interesting.

About the year 1572 was published a small volume by Richard Eden, containing an account of two voyages made to the coast of Africa; one of which was the unfortunate voyage of Windham, which we have mentioned, and which has been republished at length in Hukluyt, Astley, and others; the other was the voyage of Captain John Lok, made in 1554.

This expedition was fitted out at London, and consisted of the Trinity of 140 tons, the Bartholomew of 90, and the John Evangelist of 140. On the 11th of October, 1554, they set sail from the Thames, but did not quit the shores of England until the 1st of November. On the 17th they came within sight of Madeira, and on the 19th they saw the Canaries and were becalmed under the Peak of Teneriffe—a very usual thing at the present day. From the Canaries they steered for the coast of the continent, and descried it in the neighborhood of Cape Barbas. Running down the coast, touching and trading at several points, they remained until the 13th of February, when they started for home, where they safely arrived, with a cargo consisting of four hundred ounces of gold, more than twenty-two carats fine, thirty-six butts of grains, and two hundred and fifty elephant's teeth, some of which measured by Mr. Eden, astonished him by their size of nine spans in length, and weight of one hundred and twenty pounds apiece. In the account of the voyage are interspersed notices of natural phenomena, winds and currents, descriptions of places with their latitudes, which last, however, are very incorrectly given.

In 1555, William Touerson made his first voyage as captain (he had previously been several times in other capacities,) to Guinea, an account of which written by himself, is to be found in Hakluyt and others. His vessels were the Hart and the Hind of London, with John Ralph and William Carter sailing-masters. After a tedious passage in which they saw Porto Santo, Madeira, and the Canaries, the appearances of which are noticed at length, they arrived on the coast at a point now occupied by our colony of Liberia. Having overshot the river Sestos, the port that they wished to make, they came to anchor off the mouth of the St. Vincent, a few leagues to the east of the Sestos. In the morning they loaded their boat with basins and other goods, and went into the river, where they soon commenced a trade with the natives who came flocking around them. "They took that day one hogshead and one hundred weight of grains, and two elephant's teeth at a reasonable rate. They sold them both manillios and margarets, but they liked basins best. For each of which they had about thirty pounds weight of grains, or Guinea pepper, and for an elephant's tooth of thirty pounds weight, they gave six basins." The next morning the natives had increased so much in their prices, at the same time affecting to underrate the English goods, that no trade could be had with them.

Going on shore, the English were well received and treated. "Divers of the women, to divert their visitants, danced and sung after their manner, which was not very agreeable to the ear. There was *Sakere, Sakere, ho! ho! Sakere, Sakere, ho! ho!* Leaping and clapping their hands all the while." But all this, although gratifying to the curiosity, did not promote trade, and the natives continuing too exorbitant in their demands, they weighed anchor and stood along the coast. Occasionally having communication with the negroes, they doubled Cape Palmas, and coasted

along for one hundred leagues to Cape Tres Puntas, beyond which they expected to find a large town and a market for their cloth.

Arrived at a large negro town, they anchored, and after sending a present to the governor, tried to come to some agreement as to the terms upon which the trade should be conducted. But he would suffer his people to buy only the basins; so that morning they disposed of seventy-four brass basins for half an angel weight of gold apiece, and nine white basins for quarter of an angel.

"The next morning they manned their boats and went ashore. They were presently accosted by the same young man who had first came off to the ships, and who seemed to have dealt before with the Portuguese, for he could speak that language a little and was perfect in weights and measures. He offered, as he had done before, one angel and two grains for four ells, making signs that if they would not take that, they might depart; which they did after offering him three ells of rotten cloth for that weight, which he refused. The ships being a league off sent back again for sand and ballast. The governor perceiving that the boats brought no merchandise, and that their intention was to sail away in earnest, made signs again to know if they would not give the four ells; and when they saw the boats ready to depart they came and gave the weight of the angel and twelve grains, and made signs that if the boats would return again they would take three ells. For quicker despatch, Mr. Touerson and John Savill went ashore in one boat, and the master and Richard Curligin in the other. The first took fifty-two ounces and the other boat eight ounces and a half.

"The next day Mr. Touerson went on shore and took three pounds nineteen ounces by noon, when they had sold most of the cloth they carried. and many of the people were departed. While they were on shore they sold thirty-nine basins and two small white saucers for three ounces apiece, which was the most they made by basins."

Leaving this place they stood on to the east, touching at various points, and trading with the natives in the manner we have seen, without any adventures of much interest, until their cargo was exhausted and they set sail for home. On the 14th of May they entered the port of Bristol, having made a very successful voyage.

In 1556, Touerson made a second voyage. Arrived on the coast, the English saw three sail of ships, and made preparations for an engagement. Both fleets manœuvred for the weather-gage. The strange squadron having put themselves in order, tacked and came up in gallant style, with pendants flying and the sound of trumpets.

"When both fleets met they had the weather of ours, which being determined to fight, waved them to come under their lee. This they stoutly refusing, the English demanded of them whence they were. They said of France, and being told that our ships were of London, they asked what Portuguese we had seen. The answer was, none but fishermen. They said that there were certain Portuguese ships gone to the gold coast to defend it, and that they had met with another at the river Sestos of two hundred tons which they had burned, having saved none but the master, two or three negroes, and a few others grievously burned, whom they left ashore there."

The Frenchmen proposed that instead of fighting they should club their forces against the Portuguese and proceed together to the gold coast to

trade. The French admiral offering to supply the English ships with the water and provisions they stood in need of; and in fact, to furl his flag and come under the direction of Touerson. After several conferences and dinners, an arrangement was made by which they were to go together without attempting to injure each other's market, for which purpose, it was agreed that one boat should be sent on shore to settle the prices for both the squadrons, and then only one boat from each ship be allowed to trade. In this way they continued their trade at various points upon the coast, taking a good quantity of gold unmolested by the Portuguese, who, although they had castles and small forts at almost every accessible place, were unable to prevent them. But one day while the boats were ashore, five sail of Portuguese were descried in the offing. The boats were ordered aboard and sail made, but night prevented a fight. The next evening the Portuguese were discovered at anchor and preparations were made to attack them, the English giving their men white scarfs, so that the French might distinguish them if it came to boarding. But again night intervened, and the united squadrons came to anchor not far from the Portuguese.

The next morning both fleets weighed anchor and stood out, the united fleet getting to windward, when the Portuguese tacked to shore and the French and English pursued. "When they were so near the shore that they could not well run any further, they tacked about again and lay to the seaward. Our ships tacked at the same time, and being ahead of them, took in their topsails and waited for them. The first that came up was a small bark that carried good ordnance and sailed so fast that she valued nobody. She shot at the Tiger, Touerson's ship, but overshot her, and then let fly at the French admiral, and shot him through in two or three places. After this she went ahead of the English, because they were in their fighting sails. Then came up another caravel under the Tiger's lee, and shot both at her and the Frenchman. She hurt two of his men and shot him through the mainmast. Next came up the admiral under the lee of the Tiger also, but he was not able to do them so much harm as the small vessels, because he carried his ordnance higher; neither was the Tiger able to make a good shot at any of them, *because she was so weak in the side as to lay all her guns under water!* Mr. Touerson therefore resolved to lay the great ship aboard. But as soon as the French admiral next wore with him, he fell astern and could not fetch him. After that he fell astern two caravels more, and in short could fetch none of them, but fell to leeward of them all, and tacking about to the shore left the English to shift for themselves. The other Frenchman kept the wind also and would not advance. The Hart was astern, so that she could not come up to them. For all this the Tiger hoisted her topsails and gave the enemy chase. After she had followed them two miles to seaward, they tacked about again towards shore, thinking to pay her off as they went by, and to get the wind of the French admiral. Running by and firing at the Tiger, who tacked and followed them, they stood in for the French admiral, while the other English and French ships stood out to sea. Being come up with the French admiral, they poured into him several broadsides, but did not dare board him for fear of the Tiger, which was bearing down upon them from windward.

"When the Frenchman was clear of them he lay as near to the wind as he could, and seeing the Tiger follow them still towards the shore, ran to

sea after the rest, and left her all alone. The Portuguese perceiving this, turned about with her and she with them, to keep the wind. But they shot not at her, because she had the weather of them and they saw they could do her no hurt. Thus they followed one another until night, and then she lost them. As for all the rest of the ships, they crowded all the sails they could and ran to sea, praying for the Tiger, as they confessed, which was all the help they designed her."

The next day Touerson fell in with his consorts, but they had no great mind for a continuance of the fight, and were therefore not displeased that the Portuguese, having probably arrived at the same conclusion, did not show themselves any more. The trade on the coast continued with considerable success, but not without disputes and difficulties between the allied parties, and even between the English themselves. Coming home they encountered another Portuguese fleet of ships. The English were alone, but the gallant commander would have attacked them had it not been for the master of the Hart, who manœuvred so as to compel the Tiger to give up; for which he was reprimanded by Touerson. Taking offence at which, the Hart separated in the night from her consort and left the Tiger to make her way alone.

On the fifth of May they reached the latitude of the Azores. "On the twenty-third they spied a ship on the weather of them, which proved to be a Frenchman of ninety tons, who came up very boldly; and judging the Tiger to be weak, as indeed she was, because they perceived she had been upon a long voyage, and thought to have laid her on board, some of his men appearing in armor commanded them to strike. They answered them with cross-bows, chain-shot, and arrows, so thick that it made the upper works of the ship fly about their ears, and spoiled the captain, with many of his men; in short, they tore his ship miserably with their great ordnance. This cooling his courage, he began to sail astern and to crowd on his sails to get away as fast as he could. To show their love further, our folks gave him four or five good balls more for his farewell, and thus they were rid of the Monsieurs, who did them no harm at all. There was aboard the Tiger a French trumpeter, who being sick in bed, yet on this occasion took his trumpet and sounded till he could sound no more, and so died."

A few days after they arrived in safety at Plymouth.

A third and last voyage was made by Touerson in 1557, with three ships. On their way out they captured two Hamburg ships, with French property on board, which was taken out and the ships dismissed.

On the tenth of March they fell in with the coast of Guinea, near the mouth of the river Sestos. Here they received news that three French ships had gone on down the coast. Shortly after they were encountered and attacked by a fleet of five Portuguese ships, but without suffering much damage. They resolved next day to continue the fight, but not finding the Portuguese, they made search for the Frenchmen, one of which, the *Mulet*, they succeeded in capturing. She proved to be a fine prize, as she had fifty pounds five ounces of gold.

Continuing the trade for some time with various success, burning several towns where the negroes refused to trade, they at length set sail for England. On their way home they were compelled to abandon the old Tiger, from her leaky condition, after removing her goods and stores. Narrowly escaping being wrecked by a violent storm in the Channel, they

reached the Isle of Wight on the twentieth of October; thus ending the third and last voyage of Mr. Touerson, who seems to have been a gallant and judicious commander.

The following list appended to his voyages comprises the articles most in request in the Guinea trade.

Manils* of brass, and some of lead; basins of divers sorts, but the most of latten; pots of coarse tin of a quart or more; some wedges of iron; margarets and certain other slight beads; horse tails; blue coral; basins of Flanders; linen; red cloth of low price, and some kersey; kettles of Dutch-land (Holland) with brazen handles; some great brass basins, graved, such as in Flanders they set upon their cupboards; some great basins of pewter and ewers, graven; some lavers, such as be for water; great knives of a low price; slight Flanders caskets; chests of roan, of a low price, or any other chests; great pins; coarse French coverings; packing sheets, good store; swords, daggers, frieze mantles and gowns, cloaks, hats, red caps, Spanish blankets, hair heads, hammers, short pieces of iron, slight bells, gloves of a low price, leather bags; and what other trifles you will.

ART. VI.—MORALS OF TRADE.—No. VI.

When ought a man to fail?—Men generally, in the common concerns of life, have not the choice of success or failure. They fail, against their wills, when they cannot help it. There seems no reason why mercantile affairs should offer any exception; and, in fact, it does not, to the common use of language in this respect. A man fails when he cannot pay his debts, his property being appraised at the market price, be it high or low. We say he *does fail*, in such a case, whether the world know it or not. But *to fail*, has a technical meaning among merchants. By the conventional rules of trade one may suffer his notes at the bank, and other obligations, to lie over; it being understood by this act that he surrenders his property to his creditors, and no longer claims to be considered solvent. This course is often taken to avoid utter ruin. When a man finds himself doing a losing business, going down-hill with an accumulated velocity, no wonder he should attempt to stop the machinery of his affairs to prevent being dashed to pieces.

It is our purpose to examine this question, to look at the moral honesty of some of the customs touching failure, and to determine when a man ought to fail, and when he ought not. For this is not an optional step; one may not at any time retire from the course, or throw up his stakes and seek safety, any more than a passenger, embarked in one of our steam-packets for Europe, may demand of the captain, at any time during the voyage, to put his vessel about and land him at the place from which he sailed. Having embarked in the vessel for the voyage, he must go on; if not on his own account, perhaps for the sake of others.

It would at first seem that a man has the right to fail, in a mercantile sense, at any time. Such a one says, "Here, gentlemen, is the real property, the bank stock, the personal estate by which I obtained credit

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* Bracelets.

from you; take it; make the most of it; it is all I have;" and thus compel his creditors to take that which they do not want and cannot use, at the time, to advantage. The debtor, in this case, reasons sophistically that, as his credit was based upon property, if he surrenders *that* to his creditors, he is quits with them.

With equal force, the man who assaults his neighbor and gratifies his malice by inflicting chastisement upon him, when he pays the penalty, a fine of thousands of dollars, might reason, that he is quits with society. Society will not divide with him, nor feel recompensed by any amount of money for a breach of the peace, an example of disorder, cruelty, and revenge. Nor will his credit be very extensive who avows a principle which it has been attempted to state. Such a case, the injustice and narrowness of view it embraces, is too clear to need further comment.

We sometimes hear it said that such a one *failed to make money*. The dishonesty of pretending to be pressed by difficulties which have no existence; to be poor, when rich; for the sake of obtaining large discount on demands, is also too apparent to need argument.

But we have nicer matters to settle: may a man fail, in all cases, when doing a losing business, which every day throws a darker cloud over his affairs? May one at option in such a case, while solvent, suffer his notes to lie over and declare himself bankrupt? By no means. And why? Because he is not bankrupt; and besides, because his failure may affect the credit of others—introduce suspicion and distrust into the minds of men, and cause them to say, "If such a house is rotten, who can be trusted?" So dependent are business men upon one another; such a sympathy exists between all parts of the machinery of trade, that no man has the right, as a member of the mercantile community, however much his interests require the step, to voluntarily destroy one wheel of it. How many operations may be based upon his solvency! How many falsehoods may not this technical lie occasion! How can it happen otherwise than injuriously that a man declares himself unable to pay his debts, when he has the money in his pocket?

In war, a band of soldiers is often called upon to lay down their lives for their country. The straits of Thermopylæ and the fate of Leonidas and his little band are familiar to all. Our own Bunker Hill battle is quite as glorious; though being nearer to us and quite familiar, time has not had space to silver it over with that air of venerable antiquity almost necessary to respect for events. Now, we ask, if heroism and self-sacrifice are only to be shown in war? Is the battle-field the only place where these virtues find a sphere of display? Commerce is to these times what war was to the ancients, our employment, glory, and boast. The merchant, if he could believe it, may be a kind of commercial Leonidas; stand in the gap and nobly sacrifice his—dollars to the great interests of trade.

We would deduce an argument to support the expression of such an idea, from the very fact, that it appears almost ridiculous, even laughable, to pretend that men in trade will be governed by any thing that looks like heroism. Interest, pecuniary interest, is the lever which moves; money the talisman which inspires and supports. Why laughable? except that *heroism in trade* is a new phrase. Surely, it would be well for us if it were an old one! But if we cannot expect men to be heroical, we may, at least, demand of them to be just. The question as to when a man ought to fail is still unanswered. He may not fail to make money. He

must not fail to save himself, to the injury of others, when he can help it. If the failure happen, indeed, in fact, and cannot be avoided, the act, being involuntary, is neither good nor bad in its moral character. It is of voluntary failures, technical bankruptcies, that we are now speaking; and undoubtedly there are cases where a man may stop payment for self-preservation, to avoid utter ruin.

Suppose an instance of this kind, where an individual is the holder of large real estate, which, from some depressing circumstances in the country, has fallen to twenty-five per cent of its value. The owner of this property has endorsed paper for his friends, and has notes out of his own to pay, to a large amount, but much within the real value of his estate. If, we say, a time of pressure comes and he is called upon to pay these endorsements and his own notes besides, to do which he must sacrifice his real estate at one quarter its value, if it be in his power, he may take advantage of any rule to gain time; in other words, he may fail, in order to save his property, and that he may pay his debts. He fails to benefit his creditors and himself. He fails much in the same spirit that a bank may stop specie payments.

Technical failures are not the great evils of trade. They are rare occurrences, and when resorted to from a right principle are allowable by the strictest rules of justice. Real failures are far more disastrous in their consequences. Few houses fail soon enough. The complaint is not of the failure of solvent firms, but of the insolvency of firms which pretend to be sound. Here is the great evil in speculating times. And now the question arises, if an insolvent house has any right to pretend to solvency. Is there any fiction, any technical rule in trade, which may authorize so dangerous an experiment? There can be but one answer to this question, and that is in the negative. If even solvent firms, doing a losing business, *may* fail in justice to themselves and their creditors, insolvent firms *must* fail at the moment they discover their condition. No sophistry can escape this conclusion. However strong may be the hope of recovery, the next week or the next month; however willing friends may be to assist, under the name of "honorary loans," it is demanded by justice, that every insolvent house declare itself so at once. And what is most consistent with justice will be found to be most conducive to interest, credit, and happiness, in the long-run.

And here is found another argument against the existence of "honorary paper." In a former number we attempted to show the injustice of such arrangements. Such paper originates with sinking firms; now if an insolvent house is found to declare itself so, they who prevent the declaration, who rob the mercantile community of this knowledge, to which it is entitled by the laws of trade, must take the responsibility, and by this showing, in case of a failure, are the last persons entitled to be paid.

We hesitate not to say then, that an insolvent house may, by private assistance, still keep up an appearance of solvency, but only upon the condition we have stated, that these new loans, furnished with a full knowledge of the state of affairs, claim no privilege of payment until all other debts are paid to the full amount. In truth these assistances are rather of the nature of a private partnership or agreement, by which the insolvent house is made solvent, and, of course, as it has life and soundness at the bottom, under this arrangement, it may pretend to it with perfect fairness.

In a country like our own, making quite as great experiments in the social and mercantile conditions as in the political, where every man is striving for wealth, because wealth gives him influence and the means of educating himself and his children; because wealth itself is evidence of talent, at least the talent for accumulation, industry, and frugality; and, at the very lowest estimate, of that kind of talent called shrewdness, it is especially needful that we discuss questions of this sort, and keep in mind that our passions and enthusiasm betray us often into courses and customs that our calmer judgment does not approve.

It is not to be wondered at that in monarchies and all unnatural governments, where the people are oppressed, and all are trying to make the best they can of a bad bargain, the laws and customs of trade should be formed upon the greatest latitude the law of the land will allow, rather than upon a high tone of morals and the law of conscience. A man defrauds the revenue law in England with few scruples, because he feels that his consent was never asked to its establishment, and he has next to no voice in its distribution. And so it is with all other laws. The subject is in a state of war with the government. Freedom is ever complaining in his heart; the inalienable right of every man to life, liberty, and a free conscience, is a living thought in every human bosom; and where these principles are contradicted it will destroy his interest in the government, and give low aims and debasing customs to all departments of human industry. What cannot be said of the demoralizing tendency of regal governments, when we find even the police of the city of London in league with the thieves and felons of the stews? In such a state every man will seek his own good by the shortest cut, and soon forget, where every thing is settled by statute and act of Parliament, that there is such a principle as moral influence. One of the worst effects of a despotism is, that it kills the soul out of a people, and leaves them merely ingenious bodies and cold intellects.

We have no right then, in our republic, to draw our maxims of trade from other countries which are not free. We must start anew; and our social and mercantile principles must run parallel with our political principles. We are not living under a government of law, but of liberty. Every merchant and farmer is a part of the government. *The* BIBLE *is the statute book of a republic*, and conscience the light by which it must be consulted. We must not ask what is the custom among merchants in England, in this and that country, but what is right for him who believes man capable of governing himself. We have no conflicting interests with the government; for every man may truly say, "I am a part of the government." In proportion to individual purity, to the sternness and justice of our principles in commerce, which is the life of our country, shall we be pure as a government. The philanthropists of Europe are attempting to neutralize the effects of bad governments upon the people, as affecting their social and commercial relations, by the propagation of doctrines of association; evidencing their relations to one another; making every man somewhat dependent upon all others, instead of the competitor of all others; where everybody's loss is somebody's gain; where every misfortune is to some one a source of happiness, and every success to one is disappointment to another. The benevolent Fourier was punished, when a boy in his father's shop, for *telling the truth;* and afterwards was one of a number who destroyed some damaged rice, kept, during a time of scarcity, to command a high price, that they might frustrate the iniquitous avarice

of the merchant and preserve the health of the poor. These two events in his early life may be said to have given rise to those doctrines and that theory, by which he hoped to ameliorate the condition of his countrymen and of the world. His theory, at short hand, is, giving every man a stake in society, and making it the interest of every one to do right.

We did not purpose to discuss this theory. We fear it can never be allowed to gain much popularity under the present governments of Europe. At best, there, it is a sign of the radical change going on in the human mind with regard to the question, "How far a man may submit himself to others"—a glorious sign that men are beginning to think seriously, instead of feeling madly, concerning the abuses to which they have been subjected and still groan under. But in this country we already are an association; every man has a stake in society; it is the interest of every one to do right. If we will but look far and deep enough, every member of society will see this, and be convinced that every wrong in a republic re-acts upon the individual who commits it. It is a question yet to be settled, if there can be a nearer association than that which exists among the members of a republican form of government. The great effort should be then, not to unite them nearer in theory, but to render them so intelligent and virtuous that they may see the relations they *now* hold to one another, and be willing to acknowledge them and act accordingly. The result will be the same whether you divide communities into groups, where from day to day, and in each narrow event, the general consequences of particular acts can be felt, or give them that scope and reach of mind which can infer the general consequences from a wider field of action. The moral obligations of conduct would be as binding in the larger as in the smaller community. It is certain, that if associations do go into successful operation in this country to any considerable extent, that they will but carry out, upon a small scale, what society ought to do under the present organization; at least so far as it regards the protection of industry, scrupulous honesty, and the rights of all classes.

While upon the subject of failures, it is proper to notice what is no small difficulty to the man who only looks on and is not engaged in trade; we mean the apparent contradiction of failing and yet continuing the same course of life, as to style of living, as before. When failures are merely nominal, of the technical kind, to avoid the sacrifice of property, any one may see that it may be done honestly; and, if it is not the most prudent and economical course, still if men choose to run this additional risk, without involving others, we see not how any can have cause of complaint. And again, in *bona fide* failures, a man's creditors, often his friends, in consideration of his fairness, his integrity, and skill, and relying upon his future exertions, stipulate a certain sum to him for family expenses, that he may have domestic comfort and hope, to cheer him in his day of adversity. With such arrangements the world has nothing to do. A man may fail, and still have that best of capitals—a clear conscience, religious trust, and a stout heart; and if to shield those dear to him from the peltings of the storm, he draw largely upon that confidence and credit he so justly has earned, the world should not condemn him, and he should not regard it if it did.

With regard to failures of another character, and men of another stamp, who keep up extravagance in spite of reverses, in spite of their creditors, to show their spirit and disregard of public sentiment, their want of prin-

ciple and common honesty, enough has been and always will be said of such; so that we may be spared the pain of such melancholy pictures in these pages.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

DIGEST OF RECENT ENGLISH CASES.

MARINE INSURANCE.

An insurance was effected on the 12th of April on a cargo of cotton then at sea, by five several policies, at the rate of fifty guineas per cent; and on the 13th, news of the vessel's safety having arrived, a further insurance was bona fide effected by six different policies, at ten and five guineas per cent. The latter insurance, added to the former, exceeded in amount the value of the subject-matter insured, but the former of itself did not: Held, that the assured were entitled to a return of premium on the amount of the over-insurance, to which the underwriters who subscribed the policies of the 13th of April were to contribute ratably, in proportion to the sums insured by them respectively, (the amount of over-insurance to be ascertained by taking into account all the policies;) but that no return of premium was to be made in respect of the policies effected on the 12th. *Fisk* v. *Masterman.*

2. The plaintiff declared against the secretary of an insurance company, and alleged the making and publishing of a prospectus stating certain bonuses to have been declared by the rules of the company, and that the secretary had represented that prospectus to contain a true account of the affairs of the company. The declaration, having alleged the breach of several of the rules appointed for the governance of the establishment, averred that the representations of the defendant were false and fraudulent, and that the plaintiff, having been induced by those representations to effect a policy of insurance with the company, and to pay the premiums becoming due upon that policy, he had by means thereof been defrauded and deceived in effecting the said policy, and in making the said payments thereon; and the said policy of insurance was of much less value to the plaintiff than if the said representations of the defendant had been true in substance and in fact, to wit, £1000 of less value, and by means thereof the plaintiff was likely to lose the whole benefit of his insurance, and the said sums of money so paid by him as premiums for the same: Held to disclose a sufficient cause of action.

To such a declaration the defendant pleaded, that the rules of the society had been and were so duly performed, &c., and the funds of the society had been and were so duly administered, as was necessary for the maintenance and security of the said society, and of such insurances as had been effected: Held ill. *Pontifex* v. *Bignold.*

BILLS AND NOTES.

The holder of a bill of exchange placed it in the hands of a friend, with directions to present it. The latter got it discounted, and in order to regain possession of it, paid the amount to the bankers of the acceptor on the day it became due: Held, that this evidence negatived a plea of payment by the acceptor. *Deacon* v. *Stodhart.*

2. A bill of exchange, drawn by the defendant, was indorsed by him to the plaintiffs, S. & Co., who carried on business in partnership at Smethwick, four miles from Birmingham; by them to the Birmingham and Midland Counties' Bank, and by them to W. It became due on the 17th of August, and was dishonored. On the 18th W. returned it to the bank at Birmingham, who received it on the 19th. The plaintiff S. had previously given directions at the bank, that all communications for his firm should be

made to him at Tremadoc, in Carnarvonshire (in which neighborhood he was engaged in mining concerns.) The bank accordingly, on the 20th of August, sent notice of dishonor by post to S. at Tremadoc, which he received there on the 21st; and by the post of the 22d he sent notice to the defendant: Held, that the notice to S., and therefore that to the defendant, was duly given.

CONTRACT OF SALE.

Where the seller is also the manufacturer of goods, a warranty is implied in the contract of sale, that the goods shall be reasonably fit and proper for the purpose for which they are bought. And *semble* that the rule is not so limited, but extends to all cases where the buyer relies on the skill and judgment of the seller.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

[BROUGHT DOWN TO JULY 15.]

THIS is usually a dull season of the year, in a mercantile point of view; but this year there is probably less doing than is generally the case, notwithstanding that the material of a large trade exists in great abundance. The quantity of produce and merchandise in the country will average per head a larger proportion than ever before, and the prices or money-values of all are exceedingly low, requiring but a small amount of money to effect their interchange. Notwithstanding this state of things, no disposition to operate has manifested itself during the past month. The principal reason for this is undoubtedly that which we pointed out in a previous number, viz:—the transition from high to low duties in Great Britain and other countries of Europe simultaneously with efforts in this country to impose high duties in the place of those which have heretofore been collected. Powerful interests are contending, the one to impose a purely revenue duty, and the other to render the tariff restrictive in its general character, in order to afford a supposed protection to certain classes of manufacturers. While this matter is in debate, mercantile speculations are far too hazardous in their nature to permit the usual activity on the part of the leading dealers. But few purchases have been made for export, with the exception of some of those articles of agricultural produce on which the duty in England is undergoing reduction. This inertness in commerce has caused money to be very little sought after, and a large proportion of the funds of sound banks remain unemployed to an extent that seriously affects their profits and reduces the rates of their dividends. As an indication of the great inactivity which prevails throughout the country, we have carefully compiled the following table of the prices of the leading articles in the chief cities of the Union at the latest dates:—

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF THE LEADING ARTICLES IN ALL THE CHIEF CITIES OF THE UNION, AT THE LATEST DATES.

Articles.	*Boston.*	*New York.*	*Baltimore.*	*Charleston.*
Bagging,.....	17 a 18	13 a 18	a	17 a 20
Beeswax, Americ'n,	25 a 30	28 a 30	28 a 29	— a —
Coffee, Cuba,.....	7½ a 9	8 a 9	9 a 9½	9½ a 9½
Cordage, American,	10½ a 11½	— a 11	12 a 12½	11 a 11¼
Flour, super.....	$6 a 6 12	$5 94 a 6	$5 87 a 6	$7 a 7¼
Mackerel, No. 1,....	$10 50 a 11	$11 75 a 12 25	$10 a —	$14 50 a 15
Raisins, Malaga,....	$3 25 a 3 50	$3 a 3 12	$2 75 a 3	— a —
Gunny Bags,.....	11 a 14	12 a 13	a	— a —
Wheat,.....	a	$1 25 a 1 28	$1 30 a 1 35	— a —
Corn,.....	60 a 61	55 a 57	55 a 56	52 a 62
Hemp, clean,.....	— a $2 15	$2 20 a 2 30	— a —	— a —
Hops,.....	10 a 11	11 a 14	11 a 12	— a —
Iron, bar,.....	48 a 53	50 a 55	64 a 65	— a —

COMPARATIVE PRICES, ETC.—*Continued.*

Articles.	*Boston.*	*New York.*	*Baltimore.*	*Charleston.*
Lead, pig,	3½ a 3¾	3½ a —	3½ a 4	6 a —
Cotton, Upland,	6 a 8½	5 a 9	8 a 9	5 a 10
Whale Oil,	31 a 32	— a 32	37 a 40	— a 50
Beef, mess,	$9 a 9 25	$7 a 7 75	$9 a 9 50	$10 a 11
Pork, "	$7 a 8	$7 50 a 9 50	$7 25 a 7 50	$8½ a 9
Hams,	5 a 6	6 a 7½	5½ a 8	5 a 9
Lard,	8½ a 6½	6 a 7	7½ a —	7½ a 8
Butter,	6 a 11	6 a 7	7 a 8	14 a 18
Rice,	$2 87 a 3 12	$2 50 a 3 12	$3 a 3 25	$2 a 2 68
Salt,	a $2 50	$1 25 a 1 65	$1 50 a 1 55	$1 65 a 1 75
Steel, Eng. blister'd,	12½ a 14	12½ a 13½	12½ a 13	12½ a 14
Brandy, Cogniac,	$1 40 a 1 50	$1 25 a 1 75	$1 25 a 1 50	$1 35 a 1 75
Whiskey, rectified,	14 a 15	18½ a 19	21 a 22	18 a 20
Sugar, N. O.	3½ a 5	3 a 5	$4 a 5 25	4 a 6
Tobacco, 1st	5 a 11	3½ a 8	5 a 14	— a —
Tar,	$1 25 a 1 37	$1 50 a 1 62	— a 1 62	$1 25 a 1 75
Wool, American,	40 a 42	35 a 45	32 a 36	— a —

CITIES, ETC.—*Continued.*

Articles.	*Mobile.*	*New Orleans.*	*St. Louis.*	*Cincinnati.*
Bagging,	20 a 24	12 a 17	13 a 16	— a —
Beeswax, Americ'n,	20 a 25	— a 27	25 a 27	— a 20
Coffee, Cuba,	13 a 14	8½ a 9	11 a 12	11 a —
Cordage, American,	13 a 15	11 a 14	10 a 12	12 a 14
Flour, super	$9 a 9 25	$4 75 a 5 00	$4 50 a 4 75	$3 75 a 4 00
Mackerel, No. 1	16 a 17	— a —	15 a 16	— a 16 50
Raisins, Malaga,	$1 50 a 2 00	87 a 100	$1 25 a 1 50	$1 25 a 1 50
Gunny Bags,	— a —	15 a 16	18 a 20	— a —
Wheat,	— a —	94 a 95	75 a 78	50 a 60
Corn,	- a -	32 a 33	20 a 21	20 a 25
Hemp, clean,	— a —	— a 1 70	88 a 100	88 a 1 00
Hops,	40 a 50	— a —	18 a 19	20 a 22
Iron, bar,	45 a 55	75 a —	4½ a 6	4½ a 5
Lead, pig,	$8 a 8 25	$3 a 3 06	$3 00 a 3 05	3 a 4
Cotton, Upland,	7½ a 10½	4 a 13	— a —	7½ a 10
Whale Oil,	50 a 65	— a —	60 a 75	62 a 75
Beef, mess,	$12 a 12 50	$8 50 a 9 00	$6 a 6 50	$6 a 7 00
Pork, "	10 a 11	$6 50 a 7 00	$5 a 5 25	$5 a 5 50
Hams,	- a —	4 a 5	4 a 5	3 a 5
Lard,	11 a 12½	6 a 7	4½ a 5	4 a 5
Butter,	37 a 40	8 a 10	6 a 8	5 a 6
Rice,	6 a 6½	$4 75 a 5 00	$4 75 a 5 00	$5 a 5½
Salt,	$2 50 a 3 00	$1 50 a 1 62	$2 25 a 2 50	35 a 40
Steel, Eng. blister'd,	14 a 17	12 a 13	17 a 18	— a 16½
Brandy, Cogniac,	$2 a 2 25	90 a 1 10	$1 25 a 2 00	$1 50 a 2 00
Whiskey, rectified,	28 a 30	15 a 16	17 a 18	12 a 13
Sugar, N. O.	8 a 9	2 a 5½	4½ a 6	4 a 6½
Tobacco, 1st	50 a 60	5 a 6	4 a 5½	5 a 6
Tar,	5 a —	$1 70 a 1 75	$3 a 4 50	$4 50 a 5 00
Wool, American,	— a —	8 a 12	— a —	20 a 30

These prices, at many points, are affected by the depreciated nature of the currency; at Mobile, for instance, the currency is depreciated forty per cent, and prices rule nearly as much higher than at New Orleans, as the difference in the depreciation of the local currencies. Many articles, however, (that of flour in particular, which is from $3 50 at one point, to $9 at another,) display a much greater disparity in price than the cost of transportation added to the difference in the currencies. The severe contraction of the circulating medium in all those districts where the banks have heretofore been suspended and are now in process of resumption, is undoubtedly an immediately operating cause for the quietness of the markets of the interior, assisted by the disinclination of the mer-

chants of the Atlantic cities to embark in enterprises. The agricultural products of the country are undoubtedly greater than ever before, and the probability is that as soon as the government shall have come to some determination in relation to those laws which affect trade, the exports of our great agricultural staples will, favored by the reduced duties on them in Great Britain, greatly exceed those of any former years. The following is a table of the prices of four leading articles of produce in the New York market at four periods of each of the last ten years:—

Prices of Cotton, Flour, Beef, Pork, and Wool, for ten successive years in the New York market.

	Periods.	*Cotton.*	*Flour.*	*Beef.*	*Pork.*	*Wool.*
1833	January,	10 a 13	6 12 a 6 50	8 50 a 9 00	12 50 a 13 00	40 a 45
	April,	10 a 13½	6 12 a 6 37	8 25 a 9 00	13 00 a 14 00	42 a 56
	June,	11 a 15	5 37 a 5 75	9 00 a 10 00	13 75 a 14 25	42 a 56
	October,	15 a 18½	5 62 a 5 81	10 15 a 11 00	16 50 a 17 00	44 a 57
1834	January,	11 a 14	5 50 a 5 75	8 50 a 9 50	14 00 a 15 00	44 a 57
	April,	10½ a 13½	5 00 a 5 25	8 75 a 9 50	12 50 a 14 00	44 a 57
	June,	11 a 14½	4 81 a 5 00	8 75 a 9 50	12 75 a 14 75	44 a 52
	October,	12 a 16	5 19 a 5 37	9 25 a 10 00	13 50 a 14 50	44 a 52
1835	Jan'ry,	15½ a 17½	5 50 a 5 62	9 50	13 50 a 14 00	50 a 60
	April,	16 a 20	5 76 a 5 88	10 50 a 11 00	15 00 a 16 00	50 a 65
	June,	17 a 21	6 62 a 6 75	13 00 a 13 50	17 00 a 18 00	50 a 65
	October,	16 a 21	6 00	12 50 a 13 00	18 00 a 18 50	50 a 65
1836	January,	14 a 18½	7 59 a 7 75	9 50 a 10 00	18 00 a 18 50	50 a 63
	April,	16 a 20	7 50 a 7 75	11 50 a 12 25	22 00 a 22 50	50 a 68
	June,	15 a 20	7 00 a 7 25	10 50 a 11 25	19 00 a 21 00	50 a 68
	October,	12 a 22	9 12 a 9 25	9 50 a 10 00	26 00 a 26 50	50 a 68
1837	Jan'ry,	15¼ a 19½	12 60 a 12 25	12 00 a 13 50	23 00 a 25 00	50 a 68
	April,	11 a 16	9 87 a 10 12	13 00 a 15 00	21 50 a 22 50	50 a 68
	May,	6 a 7	[Suspension of banks—lowest point in cotton.]			
	June,	8½ a 12	9 62 a 10 00	13 00 a 14 50	18 50 a 19 00	50 a 68
	October,	9½ a 13½	9 00 a 9 50	13 50 a 14 50	18 00 a 18 50	47 a 62
1838	January,	8 a 12½	8 50	14 00 a 14 50	17 50 a 18 00	43 a 56
	April,	7½ a 11¼	7⅞ a 8 00	14 00 a 14 50	16 50 a 17 00	38 a 47
	June,	9 a 13	7 37 a 7 62	14 50 a 15 00	19 00 a 20 00	36 a 40
	October,	9½ a 14½	8 12 a 8 25	15 50 a 16 00	23 00 a 24 00	38 a 50
1839	January,	12 a 17	8 87 a 9 00	17 00 a 17 50	22 00 a 24 00	42 a 55
	April,	13½ a 17	8 25 a 8 50	16 00 a 16 50	18 50 a 19 00	42 a 55
	June,	12 a 15½	5 00 a 6 25	15 00 a 15 50	18 00 a	37½ a 45
	October,	12 a 15½	5 75 a 6 00	13 00 a 13 50	15 00 a 20 00	37 a 42
1840	January,	10 a 12½	6 37 a 6 50	14 00 a 14 50	12 50 a 15 00	38 a 40
	April,	7 a 11	5 77 a 5 50	15 00 a 15 50	14 00 a 15 00	40 a 42
	June,	7½ a 11	5 00 a 5 25	15 00 a 15 50	14 00 a 14 25	40 a 41
	October,	9 a 13	5 31 a 5 37	12 00 a	14 50 a 15 00	40 a 45
1841	January,	9 a 12½	5 25 a 5 31	10 50 a 10 75	13 00 a 13 50	44 a 46
	April,	9 a 13	5 18 a 5 25	10 25 a 10 50	12 00 a 12 50	44 a 46
	June,	10 a 12	5 50 a	9 50 a 10 00	10 00 a 11 00	42 a 44
	October,	10 a 12½	6 12 a 6 25	9 00 a 9 50	10 00 a 11 00	40 a 42
1842	January,	9 a 12	6 25 a 6 00	a 10 00	8 50 a 9 50	40 a 41
	April,	7 a 11	5 75 a 5 87	9 00 a 9 50	8 25 a 8 50	38 a 40
	July,	5 a 10	5 94 a 6 00	7 00 a 7 50	7 50 a 8 50	30 a 33

The three first of these articles are by far lower now than at any period before, during the ten years. The year 1840 was the great year of the export of flour. A larger amount was then exported than ever before. In the year 1831, the quantity exported reached within 90,000 barrels of that of 1840. The prices above given are those of New York city only. We have, however, constructed the following table from the reports of the Secretary of the Treasury, with the price according to the average value

there given, which shows as nearly as may be the average prices for the whole year for the whole Union, as follows:—

Annual Exports of Four Articles of Agricultural Produce from the United States for twelve years, with the export value; from Treasury documents.

	COTTON.		FLOUR.		BEEF.		PORK.	
Year.	*Pounds.*	*Price.*	*Barrels.*	*Price.*	*Barrels.*	*Price.*	*Barrels.*	*Price.*
1829.....	264,837,236	10	835,385	5 90	51,100	.....	59,539	.....
1830.....	298,459,102	9⅞	1,227,434	4 95	46,842	.....	45,645	.....
1831.....	276,979,784	9¼	1,806,529	5 75	60,770	.....	51,263	.....
1832.....	322,215,122	9¼	864,819	5 75	55,507	8 87	88,625	11 00
1833.....	324,696,604	11⅛	955,768	5 90	64,322	8 75	105,870	10 25
1834.....	384,737,907	12½	835,352	5 45	46,181	9 00	82,691	11 33
1835.....	387,358,992	14½	779,396	5 50	38,038	9 50	61,897	11 60
1836.....	423,631,308	16½	505,400	7 50	50,226	9 75	22,550	17 00
1837.....	444,211,537	14½	318,719	9 94	28,076	11 00	24,583	18 00
1838.....	595,952,297	10½	448,161	8 00	23,491	14 00	31,356	17 00
1839.....	413,624,212	13¼	923,151	7 56	16,189	13 00	41,301	18 00
1840.....	743,941,061	8½	1,897,501	5 37	19,681	13 50	66,281	16 00

A multiplicity of circumstances have been yearly brought to bear upon the market prices of any particular article of agricultural produce, independently of the natural effects of supply and demand. These have, during the ten years embraced in the table, grown mostly out of the operation of the currencies of Great Britain (the chief market of sale) and also in this country. The three years 1829–30–31 were short-crop years in England. The succeeding six years were average and good crops; and in one year, 1835, the supply of grain in Great Britain was equal to the demand, and none was imported. So long a period of favorable harvests engendered a degree of commercial confidence very favorable to the growth of paper credits. Accordingly, speculation in England made rapid progress. From 1832 to 1836, an immense number of joint-stock banks were created, and it has been estimated that the amount of capital invested in machinery in Lancashire nearly doubled in those years. The consequence was, that the demand for and consumption of the raw material largely increased. The banking speculation at the same time extended itself to this country, and, applied to production, caused the increased demand abroad to be more nearly supplied. In those years in the southern states nearly $15,000,000 was borrowed as bank capital, based upon the lands of cotton growers. The effect of this was, as is seen in the table, to increase the exports of cotton nearly 100 per cent. Nevertheless, the impulse given to manufacturing was so great that the prices continued to rise under that increased supply. The overproduction of manufactures became apparent in the latter part of 1838, and has since each year been more painfully evident; and, under a decreased production this year, cotton is lower than for a length of time.

In the column of flour exports it is seen that the quantity exported depends very much upon the price in this market. Thus, in the year 1834, which was one of abundance in England, nearly as much flour was exported from this country as in 1839, which was one of a short crop in England, and the year in which the largest imports of foreign wheat into Great Britain were made. That year in this country was one of great banking prosperity: that is to say, the banks were much extended, and flour, although abundant, commanded high paper prices in the first months of the year—a fact evident in the above table of prices in the New York market. The currency for the future in this country promises to approximate to the specie standard very closely; and with the abundant harvests that are everywhere rewarding the industry of the farmers, warrant that prices will be very low. On the other hand, England has reached a point at which her supplies of grain are avowedly insufficient to feed the inhabitants, and Parliament

has greatly reduced the average at which grain may be admitted. We may now look back at the general state of the wheat and flour trade of England during the same period as is embraced in the above table of exports from this country. For this purpose we will take the following tables from parliamentary papers, showing the quantity imported in each year into the United Kingdom; also the stock on hand at the close of the years; and also the average quantity admitted for consumption at each rate of duty during that period:

Import of Foreign and Colonial Wheat and Flour into Great Britain; stock on hand at the close of the year; and quantity entered at each rate of duty, from 1828 *to* 1841.

	IMPORTS OF WHEAT AND WHEAT FLOUR.	STOCK AT CLOSE OF YEAR.	ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION AND DUTY. *Rate of Duty.*	*Wheat. Quarters.*	*Wheat Flour—cwt.*
1829	1,725,781	247,752	...	.....	.....
1830	1,663,283	144,367	...	.....	.....
1831	2,309,970	901,445	...	.....	.....
1832	469,902	702,293	...	.....	.....
1833	297,565	822,852	1 0	3,907,781	1,276,731
1834	176,321	774,185	2 8	2,788,277	835,406
1835	66,905	681,158	6 8	1,996,102	518,897
1836	241,743	631,443	10 8	783,280	238,592
1837	559,942	644,671	13 8	548,348	466,432
1838	1,371,957	25,729	16 8	298,677	213,707
1839	2,875,605	175,682	18 8	76,200	44,788
1840	2,432,765	139,408	31 8	1,496	87
1841	2,500,000	500,000	49 8	2	36
Total entered in quarters,.....				11,322,085	3,768,376
" " bushels,.....				90,576,680	10,420,837

This gives the fact that more than one half of the whole imports was admitted at an average duty of 2¾d. per bushel, or at about six cents. The new duties proposed will reduce the minimum at which flour may be admitted, and greatly favor the import. The following is a table of the new corn duties, reduced to rates per bushel, in English and in United States currency:—

CORN DUTIES OF ENGLAND PER OLD AND NEW TARIFF.

AVERAGE PRICE IN ENGLAND. *British Currency.*	*U. S. Currency.*	OLD DUTY. *Brit. Cur.*	*U. S. Cur.*	NEW DUTY. *Brit. Cur.*	*U. S. C.*
s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*		*s. d.*	
under 6 4 or	under 1 53	4 5½ or	1 08	2 6 or	60 cts.
6 4½ " 6 6 "	1 53 " 1 56	4 4 "	1 04	2 4½ "	57 "
6 6 " 6 10½ "	1 56 " 1 65	4 2½ "	1 01	2 3 "	54 "
6 10½ " 7 0 "	1 65 " 1 68	4 1 "	99	2 1½ "	51 "
7 0 " 7 1½ "	1 68 " 1 71	3 11½ "	96	2 0 "	48 "
7 1½ " 7 3 "	1 71 " 1 74	3 10 "	92	1 10½ "	45 "
7 3 " 7 4½ "	1 74 " 1 77	3 8½ "	90	1 9 "	42 "
7 4½ " 7 6 "	1 77 " 1 80	3 7 "	86	1 7½ "	39 "
7 6 " 7 7½ "	1 80 " 1 83	3 4 "	81	1 6 "	36 "
7 7½ " 7 9 "	1 83 " 1 86	3 2½ "	77	1 4½ "	33 "
7 9 " 7 10½ "	1 86 " 1 89	3 1 "	74	1 3 "	30 "
7 10½ " 8 0 "	1 89 " 1 92	2 11½ "	72	1 1½ "	27 "
8 0 " 8 1½ "	1 92 " 1 95	2 10 "	69	1 0 "	24 "
8 1½ " 8 3 "	1 95 " 1 98	2 8½ "	63	0 10½ "	21 "
8 3 " 8 7½ "	1 98 " 2 07	2 1 "	51	0 9 "	18 "
8 7½ " 8 9 "	2 07 " 2 10	1 8½ "	42	0 7½ "	15 "
8 9 " 8 10½ "	2 10 " 2 13	1 4 "	33	0 6 "	12 "
8 10½ " 9 0 "	2 13 " 2 16	0 10 "	20	0 4½ "	09 "
9 0 " 9 1½ "	2 16 " 2 19	0 4 "	08	0 3 "	06 "
9 1½ over	2 19 over	0 1½ "	03	0 1½ "	03 "

This is a great reduction from former rates, and ensures a steadiness of supply into England, which is a very important item. The above table of imports into England shows that during the six years of good crops, the foreign corn trade of England nearly ceased; and, at the close of 1838, the warehouses were nearly exhausted. An immense and sudden addition was then made to the foreign purchases, against which no increased exports of merchandise from Great Britain had made provision. This produced a revulsion, and nearly reduced the Bank of England to bankruptcy.

The facts here shown lead to two conclusions, viz:—that the demand for foreign grain in England will hereafter be large and regular; and, that the supplies in the United States will be abundant and cheap. As to the ability of the United States to supply Great Britain in competition with the countries of Europe, one fact is worth a volume of argument, and that fact is contained in the following table:—

Statement of Bushels of Wheat entered in England for Consumption; wheat exports from the United States in the same time; and the price of flour per barrel at each period in the United States.

Year.	*Bushels entered in England.*	*Exports from U. S. to G. B.*	*Av. Prices of Flour in the U. S.*
1837	4,079,536	115,000	9 94
1838	10,365,695	236,000	8 00
1839	21,604,840	2,528,000	7 56
1840	18,502,120	6,831,000	5 37

From this it appears that in 1839, when the largest imports into Great Britain took place, the United States supplied but ten per cent; and in 1840 it supplied thirty-five per cent of the whole import. The shipments to the dominions of Great Britain have hitherto formed a large proportion of the exports from the United States. The following table will show the foreign flour trade of the United States for seven years, from 1833 to 1841:—

Export of Flour from the United States, for a series of years.

Where to.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Swedish West Indies,	6,300	5,732	3,897	3,836	3,083	7,119	7,898
Danish West Indies,	45,923	55,354	50,448	27,973	25,583	35,501	45,148
Dutch East Indies,	2,747	3,152	867	400	1,430	846	2,309
" West Indies,	13,090	13,103	14,435	8,989	6,510	9,494	13,157
England,	19,687	5,376	161	....	8,295	167,592	690,729
Gibraltar,	22,339	16,366	1,008	....	....	6,344	12,801
British East Indies,	2,185	1,400	894	15	55	2,550	4,565
" West Indies,	95,816	118,307	70,305	68,328	75,394	139,340	232,339
" American Colon's,	134,975	75,406	42,300	23,316	29,591	149,407	432,356
France,	2,805	501	....	....	....	400	74,416
French West Indies,	5,043	6,827	3,794	1,467	2,981	11,486	10,491
Hayti,	47,146	59,219	26,804	15,557	14,732	16,839	28,734
Cuba,	102,837	93,511	92,390	55,537	79,681	90,459	69,819
Spanish West Indies,	13,145	19,423	16,065	9,310	13,135	15,389	20,986
Madeira,	5,096	3,100	6	....	....	1,040	3,087
Cape de Verds,	2,367	1,716	411	216	259	1,002	4,167
Texas,	....	....	....	5,307	8,354	7,334	9,851
Mexico,	14,976	19,744	16,623	12,339	12,738	14,221	15,396
Honduras,	2,389	7,310	6,576	2,900	3,369	3,435	7,879
Central America,	3,103	4,054	1,197	566	1,597	1,811	....
Colombia,	19,563	22,821	15,603	12,503	7,928	577	28,707
Brazil,	152,903	161,400	118,470	60,180	125,375	177,337	197,893
Argentine Republic,	26,776	15,393	2,114	....	200	11,900	12,053
Chili,	15,683	15,314	6,738	1,385	7,055	4,551	8,197
Peru,	2,000	....	....	3,439	2,500	....	....
South America,	48,335	33,722	....	....	....	1,000	2,594
West Indies,	10,039	9,296	6,642	4,251	5,394	14,407	11,963
Africa,	1,827	1,433	1,484	477	1,595	1,780	2,218
Northwest Coast,	403	1,244	395	222	150	352	3,935
Other Ports,	5,395	9,353	5,919	600	1,500	3,000	10,000
Total, barrels,	835,352	779,398	505,400	318,719	488,161	923,151	1,897,591
Average price,	$5 45	$5 50	$7 50	$9 94	$8 00	$7 56	$5 37
Imports							
Wheat—Bushels,	1,225	238,789	563,898	3,921,259	894,536	38 884	593
" Value,	$1,213	$193,647	$493,159	$4,154 325	$896,580	$35 270	$639
Flour—cwt.	33	28,483	66,731	30,709	19,731	7,348	339
" Value,	81	$69,976	$62,341	$122,651	44,272	22,477	439

This forms a very remarkable table, showing that regularly as the price advanced in this country from 1834 to 1837, the quantity imported increased, and as regularly decreased until it ceased in 1840. In 1837, wheat equivalent to 782,000 barrels of flour was imported, and less than half that quantity was exported, notwithstanding that a surplus actually existed in the country. A large proportion of the imports of that year were actually from England, and the remainder mostly from the north of Europe. Hence, it appears that in years of scarcity in Europe, or when the failure of successive crops in England has reduced the stocks in Europe, the supplies from this country come into requisition, and must raise and permanently support prices in the United States at an average above those of the average of the three years prior to 1836, which was $5 69 per barrel. We allude to prices based only upon specie currency of a standard near that of the countries whence the demand emanates. A steady demand at such prices will do more to develop the inexhaustible agricultural resources of this country than all the bank paper that could under any circumstances be created. To show the capacity of the country in some degree, we annex the following table of the population and agricultural products per head of seventeen of the leading states, divided into free and slaveholding states, compiled from the census of 1840:—

Population and Agricultural Products per head in Seventeen States of the United States.

	POPULATION.		PER HEAD.					
States.	*Free.*	*Slave.*	*Cer'l Gr'ns. Bushels.*	*Potatoes. Bush.*	*Cattle. No.*	*Sheep. No.*	*Swine. No.*	*Horses. No.*
Maine,...	502,000	.....	6.80	20.70	0.65	1.30	0.23	0.12
Mass.....	738,000	.....	5.51	7.30	0.38	0.51	0.19	0.08
Conn.....	310,000	.....	13.28	11.00	0.78	1.30	0.43	0.11
N. York,	2,429,000	.....	21.29	12.39	0.79	2.11	0.78	0.19
Penn.....	1,724,000	.....	33.09	5.53	0.68	1.02	0.88	0.21
Ohio,.....	1,519,000	.....	43.61	3.82	0.80	1.33	1.38	0.28
Michigan,	212,000	.....	32.18	9.96	0.87	0.47	1.39	0.14
Illinois,...	476,000	.....	65.50	4.26	1.31	0.41	3.14	0.42
Slave States.								
Virginia,.	771,000	449,000	48.34	2.37	0.82	1.04	1.60	0.26
N. Car...	507,000	246,000	38.88	3.04	0.82	0.71	2.19	0.22
S. Car...	167,000	327,000	29.01	4.54	0.96	0.39	1.48	0.22
Georgia,.	410,000	281,000	35.30	1.85	1.28	2.39	2.11	0.22
Al'bama,	338,000	253,000	39.27	2.89	1.13	0.27	2.41	0.24
Mississip.	181,000	195,000	37.37	4.33	1.63	0.34	2.66	0.29
Louis'na,	184,000	169,000	17.15	2.36	1.08	0.27	0.91	0.28
Tenn.....	746,000	183,000	68.64	2.29	1.00	0.89	3.53	0.41
Kentuck.	595,000	184,000	67.96	1.35	1.01	1.29	2.95	0.51
TOTAL, U. States,	17,062,000		36.07	6.35	0.88	1.13	1.54	0.25

This was the product according to the census for the year in which the greatest export of flour was made. Since that year the product has been estimated at an increase of 25 per cent, giving an average per inhabitant of forty and one half bushels. The produce of animals has increased in a much greater proportion. The capacity of the population to consume these products increases only in the numerical proportion of the increase of that population. The surplus is large, and constantly increasing. It must have an outlet, which can be facilitated only by low duties on return goods.

We have gone a little into those general causes which we believe to be the origin of the present depression, and also the elements of future improvement. Since our last, the banks of Tennessee have resolved to return to specie payments on the 1st of August, and those of Virginia have in convention solemnly resolved to return to specie payments on the 15th of September. Unfortunately, however, two of the banks of New Orleans

which paid specie at the date of our last have been compelled to suspend, in consequence of the untiring opposition of the debtors of the banks who wish to discharge their debts in a depreciated currency; and also of the insolvent banks whose credit suffered severely by the contrast between them and the sound banks. This is a melancholy result, and gives indication of a poor state of intelligence on the part of a community which suffers the deserving institutions to be sacrificed to the cupidity of those whose object it is to fleece the public. The hostility existing between the institutions operates as a punishment upon the public that have suffered the insolvent banks to go on and do business. Thus, the different banks will take none but their own notes on deposit or in payment of debts. Hence, when a person owes a note at one institution, and holds the notes of another, he must sell the notes of the one and purchase those of the other. The brokers charge a difference of nearly five per cent in buying and selling. A direct and onerous tax is thus imposed upon the bank debtors, whose influence mainly brought about the existing state of affairs. The probability is, however, that the new crops will all move on a specie basis. In many parts of Alabama the planters have already determined to take nothing but specie funds for their cotton, and in most of the other states a specie currency prevails; so that inevitable and ruinous discredit must attend those institutions which continue their suspensions.

The uncertain state of the government finances has had a great effect upon the stocks of the several states. So far, the Secretary has been unable to negotiate more than about $1,500,000 of the whole loan. It is true no attempt has yet been made in the foreign market, but preparations are making to send out an agent under such auspices as is thought may obtain the money, notwithstanding the low state of American credit abroad. The absolute necessity which exists for the government to have the money at some rate, and the little chance supposed to exist of getting it abroad, have caused fears to be entertained that finally it may be forced upon this market in a manner to sink all stocks. This state of things has caused the prices of the soundest stocks to give way to a great extent. New York state stocks have fallen five to six per cent. Ohio and Kentucky have given way nearly ten per cent. Pennsylvania has fallen twelve per cent, in consequence of the failure of that state to provide for its interest. At this time last year, Pennsylvania 5's sold at 80; they now are heavy at 32 per cent, and that state is classed among the dishonored states. The probability is that when the settlement of the tariff question shall have opened the way for some improvement in the activity of commercial operations, that the demand for money for those purposes will tend to depress the prices of stocks still further. There is now no foreign demand for stocks, and in ordinary seasons American capital is too valuable to be locked up in government five, six, or seven per cent securities. The southern states have in former years borrowed money in Europe at six per cent, and reloaned it to cotton growers at eight and nine per cent. This is an indication that when, through discredit, the capital of Europe is no longer open to us, our own stocks must fall to very low rates.

The comptroller of the city of New York advertised proposals for a loan of $500,000 in a seven per cent stock, redeemable in ten years, interest payable quarterly. This loan was promptly taken, at par, by private capitalists, for investment. It is the balance of the amount authorized by the last legislature, and its object is to discharge the temporary loans falling due.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES,

AT FOUR SUCCESSIVE PERIODS.

The following tabular statement, derived from the report of the committee of the house of representatives on commerce, exhibits the entire import and export trade of the United States at four successive periods, beginning with the year 1825 and ending with 1840; and also, our imports and exports in the trade of each of the several countries designated in the tables, during the same years. The object of this table is to show the relative value of the trade of each nation referred to, and its increase or decrease during the term:—

Statement showing the total import and export of the United States at the four periods as follows:

	Imports.	*Exports.*
1825	$96,340,075	$99,535,388
1830	70,876,920	73,849,509
1835	129,391,247	121,693,577
1840	107,141,519	131,571,950

Of these amounts there were imported from and exported to—

GREAT BRITAIN AND DEPENDENCIES.

	Imports.	*Exports.*
1825	$42,394,812	$44,217,525
1830	26,804,984	31,647,881
1835	65,949,307	60,167,699
1840	39,130,923	70,322,986

FRANCE AND DEPENDENCIES.

	Imports.	*Exports.*
1825	$11,835,581	$11,891,327
1830	8,240,885	11,806,238
1835	23,362,584	20,335,066
1840	17,908,127	22,355,905

SPAIN AND DEPENDENCIES.

	Imports.	*Exports.*
1825	$9,322,791	$5,840,720
1830	8,373,681	6,049,051
1835	15,617,140	7,069,279
1840	14,019,650	7,618,347

BRAZIL.

	Imports.	*Exports.*
1825	$2,156,707	$2,393,754
1830	2,491,460	1,843,238
1835	5,574,466	2,608,656
1840	4,927,296	2,506,574

MEXICO.

	Imports.	*Exports.*
1825	$4,044,647	$6,470,144
1830	5,235,241	4,837,458
1835	9,490,446	9,029,221
1840	4,175,001	2,515,341

THE HANSE TOWNS.

	Imports.	*Exports.*
1825	$2,739,526	$3,121,033
1830	1,873,278	2,274,880
1835	3,841,943	3,528,276
1840	2,521,493	4,198,459

NETHERLANDS AND DEPENDENCIES.

	Imports.	*Exports.*
1825	$1,253,369	$5,895,499
1830	1,356,765	4,562,437
1835	2,963,718	4,411,053
1840	2,326,896	4,546,085

RUSSIA.

	Imports.	*Exports.*
1825	$2,067,110	$287,401
1830	1,621,899	416,575
1835	2,395,245	585,447
1840	2,572,427	1,169,481

SWEDEN AND DEPENDENCIES.

	Imports.	*Exports.*
1825	$1,417,598	$569,550
1830	1,398,640	961,729
1835	1,316,508	602,593
1840	1,275,468	652,546

DENMARK AND DEPENDENCIES.

	Imports.	*Exports.*
1825	$1,539,592	$2,701,088
1830	1,671,218	2,014,085
1835	1,403,902	1,780,496
1840	976,678	1,193,500

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1830 TO 1840.

I.—*Statement showing the total amount of imports and exports, the aggregate tonnage, domestic and foreign, entered into the United States and cleared therefrom, and the portions thereof belonging to the several countries therein designated, in each year, from* 1830 *to* 1840, *both inclusive: derived from the Appendix to the Report of the Hon. J. P. Kennedy, from the Committee on Commerce, May* 28, 1842.

1830.—Total import of the United States,.....$70,876,920
" " export " 73,849,508

American tonnage entered,.....	967,227	tons.
Foreign " "	131,900	
Total entered,		1,099,127
American tonnage cleared,.....	971,760	tons.
Foreign " "	133,436	
Total cleared,		1,105,196

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	Entered.	*Cleared.*
Of British,.....	87,231 tons	87,823 tons.
French,.....	11,256	11,331
Spanish,.....	12,299	11,629
Hanseatic,.....	9,653	9,006
Dutch,.....	630	1,130
Swedish,.....	4,136	3,979
Danish,.....	1,234	1,218
Russian,.....	264	264
Prussian,.....	287	287
Austrian,.....	—	171
Mexican,.....	2,718	2,997

1831.—Total import of the United States,.....$103,191,124
" " export " 81,310,583

American tonnage entered,.....	922,952	tons.
Foreign " "	281,948	
Total entered,		1,204,900
American tonnage cleared,.....	972,504	tons.
Foreign " "	271,994	
Total cleared,		1,244,498

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	Entered.	*Cleared.*
Of British,.....	215,887 tons	211,270 tons.
French,.....	11,701	7,165
Spanish,.....	19,618	19,072
Hanseatic,.....	11,176	12,319
Dutch,.....	1,022	1,913
Swedish,.....	3,653	2,821
Danish,.....	6,250	4,971
Russian,.....	577	577
Prussian,.....	312	312
Austrian,.....	—	—
Mexican,.....	10,037	9,850

1832.—Total import of the United States,.....$101,029,266
" " export " 87,176,943

American tonnage entered,.....	949,622	tons.
Foreign " "	393,038	
Total entered,		1,342,660
American tonnage cleared,.....	974,865	tons.
Foreign " "	387,505	
Total cleared,		1,362,370

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	Entered.	*Cleared.*
Of British,	288,841 tons	284,886 tons.
French,	22,638	23,257
Spanish,	26,942	29,066
Hanseatic,	22,351	19,540
Dutch,	2,860	4,369
Swedish,	9,784	8,468
Danish,	6,146	5,162
Russian,	1,592	1,592
Prussian,	—	—
Austrian,	1,373	1,273
Mexican,	7,595	7,207

1833.—Total import of the United States, ... $108,118,311
" " export " 90,140,433

American tonnage entered, ... 1,111,441 tons.
Foreign " " 496,705
Total entered, ——— 1,608,146

American tonnage cleared, ... 1,142,160 tons.
Foreign " " 497,039
Total cleared, ——— 1,639,199

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	Entered.	*Cleared.*
Of British,	383,487 tons	377,250 tons.
French,	20,917	25,620
Spanish,	33,560	33,067
Hanseatic,	29,285	27,208
Dutch,	1,309	6,519
Swedish,	12,169	11,947
Danish,	4,669	4,310
Russian,	1,591	841
Prussian,	574	1,084
Austrian,	2,013	1,701
Mexican,	3,976	3,359

1834.—Total import of the United States, ... $126,521,332
" " export " 104,336,973

American tonnage entered, ... 1,074,670 tons.
Foreign " " 568,052
Total entered, ——— 1,642,722

American tonnage cleared, ... 1,134,220
Foreign " " 577,700
Total cleared, ——— 1,711,920

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	Entered.	*Cleared.*
Of British,	453,495 tons	458,067 tons.
French,	23,649	24,537
Spanish,	32,056	37,804
Hanseatic,	25,265	24,513
Dutch,	2,011	2,599
Swedish,	13,392	14,954
Danish,	5,788	5,058
Russian,	749	962
Prussian,	934	1,071
Austrian,	1,802	2,453
Mexican,	5,980	2,450

1835.—Total import of the United States, ... $149,895,742
" " export " 121,693,577

American tonnage entered, ... 1,352,653 tons.
Foreign " " 641,310
Total entered, ——— 1,993,963

American tonnage cleared,.....1,400,517 tons.
Foreign " " 630,824
Total cleared, ——— 2,031,341

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	Entered.	*Cleared.*
Of British,	529,922 tons	523,417 tons.
French,	15,457	14,354
Spanish,	24,497	26,245
Hanseatic,	28,218	28,421
Dutch,	3,112	2,148
Swedish,	15,661	13,479
Danish,	3,570	3,186
Russian,	250	330
Prussian,	1,272	942
Austrian,	3,125	2,509
Mexican,	11,057	10,531

1836.—Total import of the United States,.....$189,980,035
" " export " 128,663,040

American tonnage entered,.....1,255,384 tons.
Foreign " " 680,213
Total entered, ——— 1,935,597

American tonnage cleared,.....1,315,523 tons.
Foreign " " 674,721
Total cleared, ——— 1,990,244

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	Entered.	*Cleared.*
Of British,	544,774 tons	538,921 tons.
French,	19,519	18,486
Spanish,	10,428	10,970
Hanseatic,	39,525	43,256
Dutch,	6,199	7,250
Swedish,	23,630	22,030
Danish,	8,463	8,065
Russian,	4,486	3,533
Prussian,	3,729	3,372
Austrian,	8,276	7,427
Mexican,	4,855	4,106

1837.—Total import of the United States,.....$140,989,277
" " export " 117,419,376

American tonnage entered,.....1,299,720 tons.
Foreign " " 765,703
Total entered, ——— 2,065,423

American tonnage cleared,.....1,266,622 tons.
Foreign " " 756,292
Total cleared, ——— 2,022,914

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	Entered.	*Cleared.*
Of British,	543,020 tons	536,420 tons.
French,	26,286	26,070
Spanish,	11,342	10,562
Hanseatic,	70,703	65,538
Dutch,	14,628	14,670
Swedish,	25,660	26,612
Danish,	16,107	17,486
Russian,	4,081	4,592
Prussian,	19,825	17,973
Austrian,	16,779	17,774
Mexican,	818	1,426

1838.—Total import of the United States.....$113,717,406
" " export " 108,486,616

American tonnage entered,.....1,302,974 tons.
Foreign " " 592,110
Total entered, ——— 1,895,084

American tonnage cleared,.....1,408,761 tons.
Foreign " " 604,166
Total cleared, ——— 2,012,927

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	Entered.	*Cleared.*
Of British,.....	484,702 tons.....	486,904 tons.
French,.....	20,570	21,849
Spanish,.....	13,183	13,607
Hanseatic,.....	37,538	39,636
Dutch,.....	4,436	4,536
Swedish,.....	8,695	11,542
Danish,.....	3,447	4,765
Russian,.....	1,430	1,604
Prussian,.....	2,087	2,321
Austrian,.....	2,452	3,382
Mexican,.....	962	976

1839.—Total import of the United States,.....$162,092,132
" " export " 121,028,416

American tonnage entered,.....1,491,279 tons.
Foreign " " 624,814
Total entered, ——— 2,116,093

American tonnage cleared,.....1,477,928 tons.
Foreign " " 611,839
Total cleared, ——— 2,089,767

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	Entered.	*Cleared.*
Of British,.....	495,353 tons.....	491,485 tons.
French,.....	22,686	21,680
Spanish,.....	16,501	18,753
Hanseatic,.....	41,139	38,067
Dutch,.....	3,384	3,231
Swedish,.....	17,725	18,787
Danish,.....	5,053	4,759
Russian,.....	2,788	1,294
Prussian,.....	2,204	1,213
Austrian,.....	1,602	2,573
Mexican,.....	995	1,300

1840.—Total import of the United States,.....$107,141,519
" " export " 132,085,946

American tonnage entered,.....1,576,946 tons.
Foreign " " 712,363
Total entered, ——— 2,289,309

American tonnage cleared,.....1,647,009 tons.
Foreign " " 706,486
Total cleared, ——— 2,353,495

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	Entered.	*Cleared.*
Of British,.....	582,424 tons.....	563,735 tons.
French,.....	30,701	29,553
Spanish,.....	15,927	16,768
Hanseatic,.....	41,874	44,772
Dutch,.....	3,629	3,437
Swedish,.....	15,376	19,067
Danish,.....	4,289	5,886
Russian,.....	322	1,188
Prussian,.....	1,394	1,659
Austrian,.....	3,957	4,145
Mexican,.....	1,544	2,137

II.—*Showing the amount of imports and exports, and the American and foreign tonnage annually entered and cleared in the United States, from the year* 1821 *to the year* 1830, *both inclusive; from the same source as above.*

1821.—Total import of the United States,		$62,585,724
" " export "		64,974,382
American tonnage entered,	765,098 tons.	
Foreign " "	81,526	
Total entered,		846,624
American tonnage cleared,	804,947 tons.	
Foreign " "	83,073	
Total cleared,		888,020
1822.—Total import of the United States,		$83,241,541
" " export "		72,160,281
American tonnage entered,	787,964 tons.	
Foreign " "	100,541	
Total entered,		888,505
American tonnage cleared,	813,748 tons.	
Foreign " "	97,490	
Total cleared,		911,238
1823.—Total import of the United States,		$77,579,267
" " export "		74,699,030
American tonnage entered,	775,271 tons.	
Foreign " "	119,468	
Total entered,		894,739
American tonnage cleared,	810,761 tons.	
Foreign " "	119,740	
Total cleared,		930,501
1824.—Total import of the United States,		$80,549,007
" " export "		75,986,657
American tonnage entered,	850,033 tons.	
Foreign " "	102,367	
Total entered,		952,400
American tonnage cleared,	919,278 tons.	
Foreign " "	102,552	
Total cleared,		1,021,830
1825.—Total import of the United States,		$96,340,075
" " export "		99,535,388
American tonnage entered,	880,754 tons.	
Foreign " "	92,927	
Total entered,		973,681
American tonnage cleared,	960,366 tons.	
Foreign " "	95,080	
Total cleared,		1,055,446
1826.—Total import of the United States,		$84,974,477
" " export "		77,595,322
American tonnage entered,	942,206 tons.	
Foreign " "	105,654	
Total entered,		1,047,860
American tonnage cleared,	953,012 tons.	
Foreign " "	99,417	
Total cleared,		1,052,429
1827.—Total import of the United States,		$79,484,068
" " export "		82,321,827
American tonnage entered,	918,361 tons.	
Foreign " "	137,589	
Total entered,		1,055,950
American tonnage cleared,	980,542 tons.	
Foreign " "	131,250	
Total cleared,		1,111,792

1828.—Total import of the United States,.....$88,509,824
" " export " 72,264,686

American tonnage entered,	868,381 tons.	
Foreign " "	150,223	
Total entered,		1,018,604
American tonnage cleared,	897,404 tons.	
Foreign " "	151,030	
Total cleared,		1,048,434

1829.—Total import of the United States,.....$74,492,527
" " export " 72,358,671

American tonnage entered,	872,949 tons.	
Foreign " "	130,743	
Total entered,		1,003,692
American tonnage cleared,	944,799	
Foreign " "	133,006	
Total cleared,		1,077,805

1830.—Total import of the United States,.....$70,876,920
" " export " 73,849,506

American tonnage entered,	967,227 tons.	
Foreign " "	131,900	
Total entered,		1,099,127
American tonnage cleared,	971,760 tons.	
Foreign " "	133,436	
Total cleared,		1,105,196

—

III.—*Statement of Value of Cargoes carried by American and Foreign Vessels; being the aggregate of imports and exports of each year; and of the portion of such aggregate carried respectively by vessels of the United States and foreign vessels; these compared with the aggregate of American and foreign tonnage entering and clearing in each year; firstly from the year* 1821 *to* 1830, *and secondly from* 1831 *to* 1840, *both inclusive: expressed in millions and tenths.*

	American Cargoes.	*Foreign Cargoes.*
1.—1821	$113.1 millions	$14.2 millions.
1822	137.5 "	17.6 "
1823	136.7 "	15.3 "
1824	141.5 "	13.0 "
1825	180.6 "	15.1 "
1826	150.1 "	12.0 "
1827	146.9 "	14.7 "
1828	142.9 "	17.6 "
1829	130.3 "	15.3 "
1830	129.8 "	14.7 "
	$1,409.4 "	$150.4 "

Aggregate of American tonnage entering and clearing as per table No. III..... 17.5 millions tons
Do. foreign,..... 2.2 " "
$1,409.4 millions American cargoes to 17.5 millions tons, American tonnage; $80.5 to 1.
$150.4 millions foreign cargoes to 2.2 millions tons, foreign tonnage; $86. to 1.

	American Cargoes.	*Foreign Cargoes.*
2.—1831	$159.3 millions	$24.9 millions.
1832	156.3 "	31.7 "
1833	165.9 "	32.0 "
1834	191.3 "	39.4 "
1835	229.3 "	42.0 "
1836	268.6 "	49.7 "
1837	213.2 "	44.9 "
1838	192.4 "	29.1 "

	American Cargoes.		*Foreign Cargoes.*	
1839	238.5	millions	44.4	millions.
1840	198.3	"	40.6	"
	$2,013.1	"	$378.7	"

Aggregate of American tonnage entering and clearing as per table
No. I. ..... 25.0 millions tons.
Do. foreign ..... 11.4 " "
$2,013.1 millions American cargoes to 25 millions American tonnage; $80.5 to 1.
$378.7 millions foreign cargoes to 11.4 millions foreign tonnage; $33.4 to 1.

NOTE.—The amounts of this table slightly vary from the statement of tables No. I. and II., because the fractions are not fully given. The ratio of cargo to tonnage is also calculated without reference to fractions.

IV.—*Showing the ratio of tonnage, American and foreign, to value of cargoes in three different years, selected out of each term of ten years, computed without accurate reference to fractions.*

AMERICAN.

1st term.				*Ratio.*
1821	$113 millions of cargo,	to 1.5	millions of tons,	75 to 1
1825	195 do.	to 1.8	do.	108 to 1
1830	144 do.	to 1.9	do.	75 to 1

FOREIGN.

1821	$14.2 millions of cargo,	to 0.16	millions of tons,	90 to 1
1825	15.1 do.	to 0.18	do.	84 to 1
1830	14.7 do.	to 0.26	do.	57 to 1

AMERICAN.

2d term.				*Ratio.*
1831	$159.3 millions of cargo,	to 1.9	millions of tons,	84 to 1
1835	229.3 do.	to 2.7	do.	85 to 1
1840	198.3 do.	to 3.2	do.	62 to 1

FOREIGN.

1831	$25 millions of cargo,	to 0.55	millions of tons,	45.5 to 1
1835	42 do.	to 1.30	do.	32.3 to 1
1840	40.6 do.	to 1.40	do.	29 to 1

NOTE.—This table exhibits a very remarkable increase of the ratio of foreign tonnage to the *value* of the cargo; showing how much the carriage of the bulky commodities of our export has increased in foreign vessels. In 1821 the foreign tonnage carried $90 millions worth of cargo in 1 million of tons; in 1840 it carried $29 millions in 1—showing that the foreign tonnage is rapidly getting possession of that branch of our carrying trade which requires the greatest amount of shipping, and which is, therefore, the most valuable to navigation.

V.—*Statement showing the number of enrolled and licensed vessels built in the United States; also the number lost or condemned, and the balance of increase in each year.*

Years.	*Quantity Built. Tons.*	*Lost or Condemned. Tons.*	*Actual Increase. Tons.*
Year ending December 31, 1830, ...	36,841	7,551	29,289
" " 1831, ...	40,241	7,932	32,308
" " 1832, ...	71,556	7,664	63,891
" " 1833, ...	88,647	5,951	82,694
" " 1834, ...	65,707	4,824	60,882
From September 30, 1835, to September 30, 1836, ...	66,982	5,619	61,361
" " 1837, ...	80,643	9,163	71,478
" " 1838, ...	71,275	6,208	65,067
" " 1839, ...	65,922	7,729	58,193
" " 1840, ...	62,187	13,174	49,012

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Mineral Springs of Western Virginia*; with Remarks on their Use, and the Diseases to which they are Applicable. By WILLIAM D. BURKE. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1842.

This little volume presents a clear and succinct account of the celebrated springs of Western Virginia, an analysis of their properties, and, in fact, just that kind of information that the invalid who desires to partake of their curative influences is desirous of possessing. The author appears to make no statement of fact, of the truth of which he is not personally assured, either of his own knowledge, or on information derived from sources worthy of credit. There are detached accounts of several of the Virginia springs, which have been extremely useful in directing public attention to these valuable agents; but there is no work like the present, that treats of them as a group, except, perhaps, the very valuable treatise of Bell "on Baths and Mineral Waters;" some facetious epistles indited by "Peregrine Prolix;" and a brief notice of each spring by Col. T. H. Perkins, an eminent merchant of Boston, in his introduction to the pamphlet on the Red Sulphur Springs, by Dr. Hunt, of which, with characteristic benevolence, he caused two thousand copies to be printed at his own expense, and circulated at the north. The author entertains the opinion that many years will not elapse before England and France will annually send multitudes of invalids to these unrivalled fountains, when we shall see those beautiful valleys teeming with living beings from every quarter of the globe.

2.—*Forest Life.* By the Author of "A New Home." 2 vols. New York: C. S. Francis. 1842.

These volumes, we are informed by the lady author, constitute rather a continuation than a sequel to the sketches published more than two years ago, under the title of "A New Home—Who'll Follow?" She is credibly informed that ingenious malice has been busy in finding substance for the shadows which were called up to give variety to the pages of her former work; in short, that she has been accused of substituting personality for impersonation. This, however, she utterly denies, and expresses her regret that any one has been persuaded to regard as unkind what was intended merely as a playful sketch and not as a serious history. In the volumes before us, Mrs. Clavers, for that is her real name, delineates with graphic life-like vividness the scarcely reclaimed wilderness—the forest—the pioneers—the settlers—the people, who, migrating thither of their own free will, each with his own individual views of profit or advancement—have, as a mass, been the mighty instrument in the hands of Providence, of preparing the way for civilization, for intelligence, for refinement, and for religion. She disclaims all notice of the older settlements of the west—the towns and villages in which the spirit of emulation and that of imitation have nearly annihilated all that is characteristic of new country life. We admire her dashing style—her delineations of the homely manners, habits, and peculiarities of western life—and commend the volumes to all the admirers of genuine American literature.

3.—*Tales from Life; designed to illustrate certain religious doctrines and practices which prevail at the present day.* By GEORGE ROGERS. 18mo. pp. 180. Boston: A Tompkins.

The author of this little volume is a believer in the doctrine of the final salvation of the whole human family, and when he wrote these tales he was preaching in Pittsburg "night after night, and thrice on the Sabbaths." The facts or materials were, says the author, drawn from life. He adopted this course for diffusing his peculiar sentiments, because he judged that they would effect more for the end proposed, and do it better, than would a series of direct reasonings written in the same compass.

4.—*The Fortunes of Hector O'Halloran, and his man, Mark Antony O'Toole.* By WILLIAM MAXWELL, author of "Stories of Waterloo." Illustrated by DICK KITCAT. 8vo. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This humorous tale now in course of republication in numbers, which appear shortly after their arrival in this country, we can commend to those who read merely for amusement. The numbers thus far have the merit of being graphic and racy in the extreme.

5.—***An Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England.*** By the Rt. Rev. Gilbert Burnet, D.D., late Lord Bishop of Salisbury. With an Appendix, containing the Augsburg Confession, Creed of Pope Pius IV., etc. Revised and Corrected, with Copious Notes and Additional References, by the Rev. James R. Page, A.M., of Queen's College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 687. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

This is, we believe, the first American edition of a standard work in sectarian religious literature. The advantages of this edition over all others are thus stated in the editor's preface:—

"1. The learned author's text has been preserved with strict fidelity.

"2. The references to the fathers, councils, and other authorities have been almost universally verified; and, in many instances, corrected and so enlarged as to render them easy of access to the student.

"3. A large number of scripture references have been added. In different parts of this work, Bishop Burnet lays down propositions without giving the scripture by which they may be proved. The editor has, however, added references in these and all other instances where they might be considered not merely additions, but also improvements.

"4. The canons and decrees of councils and other documents of importance referred to have been given in the original, and from the most authentic sources—the places where they are to be found being specified.

"5. Copious notes have been added, containing, besides other information, notices of the principal heretics and persons of note, with an accurate account of their opinions. Also extracts, chiefly from the works of the most distinguished divines of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, opening and illustrating the chief points in controversy between us and the church of Rome. In an appendix has also been given the Confession of Augsburg, and Creed of Pope Pius IV., in the English and original tongues, and in the original only, the canons and rubric of the Mass."

6.—***Handy Andy.*** By Samuel Lover. 8vo. Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

About two years since, "a few short papers, under the title of this little venture, appeared at intervals in Bentley's Miscellany." Frequent inquiries were made "Why Handy Andy was not continued?" The first number therefore, of the series which Mr. Lover has at length resumed, is a reprint in part of what was embraced in the "Miscellany." In justice, however, to the author, it may be stated that much revision and the introduction of fresh matter has since taken place, with a view to the development of story and character necessary to a *sustained* work, as the first paper of Handy Andy was written without any intention of continuation, and of course required the additions and amendments alluded to. The numbers are beautifully printed, as indeed is every thing emanating from the press of these publishers.

7.—***The Massachusetts Register and United States Calendar for 1842, and other Valuable Information.*** 18mo. pp. 250. Boston: James Loring.

This little annual contains a vast amount of information, commercial, political, and religious, interesting to the citizens of Massachusetts, as well as to those of the other states of the Union who have any intercourse with that important commonwealth. It has been published for a series of years by the same respectable publisher, who spares no pains or expense to secure its accuracy in every particular. It is to the people of Massachusetts what Williams' Register is to New York—a *vade mecum* of general reference on all the various subjects falling within the scope of a state register.

8.—***Little Coin, Much Care; or, How Poor Men Live.*** A Tale for Young Persons. By Mary Howitt. 18mo. pp. 171. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The American publishers have done well in adding this admirable tale to their valuable series "for the people and their children." Miss Howitt belongs technically to that denomination of Christians commonly called Quakers or Friends, but she writes for all; and while the spirit of Christian piety and virtue pervades every line that emanates from her pen, there is not a thought or sentiment calculated to create discord or regret in the mind of any intelligent disciple of the "meek and lowly" Founder of the Christian faith, to whatever denomination he may be attached.

9.—***Poetical Remains of the late Lucy Hooper;*** collected and arranged, with a memoir, by JOHN KEESE. 12mo. pp. 291. New York: Samuel Colman.

Mr. Keese has in this instance laid the lovers of poetry in general, and the admirers of this gifted child of song in particular, under the greatest obligations, by collecting the remains of one who, after a brief but brilliant career, has sunk to an untimely grave. If we may judge from the specimens before us, we have a right to assert that, had life been spared her, the authoress would have reached the highest pinnacle of poetic fame. The bud gave every promise; but, alas! it was plucked before its petals had fairly opened to the air. The leaves have scattered, and the color has faded, but we can still judge of the expected beauty of the flower by the fragrance which it leaves after its decay. The task of editing these remains could not have been intrusted to more appropriate hands. The author of the memoir enjoyed the acquaintance and friendship of the poetess, and had the fullest opportunity of becoming acquainted with those intellectual and moral qualities which, like a gleam of sunshine playing upon the foliage of the trees or falling upon the greensward at their roots, endures for a moment, yet leaves a permanent impression of beauty and grace.

10.—***Bible Biography; or the Lives and Characters of the Principal Personages mentioned in the Sacred Writings; particularly adapted to the instruction of Youth and Private Families,*** etc. 8vo. pp. 441. New York: Robert Sears. 1842.

In addition to the biographical notices of Scriptural characters embraced in this volume, Mr. Sears, the compiler, has appended thirty dissertations on the evidences of Divine revelation, derived mainly from Timpson's Key to the Bible. The volume is rich in engraved illustrations of Scriptural scenes, manners, and customs, and forms altogether one of the most interesting and attractive volumes connected with biblical literature ever published in this country. In the preparation of the work, Mr. Sears seems to have availed himself of almost every work in existence that was calculated to impart information or shed light on the matter in hand; and the results of his labor in this field of literature evince the most untiring industry and patient research; and we have no doubt that his efforts will be duly appreciated, and meet with the encouragement they so richly deserve.

11.—***Homœopathy, and its Kindred Delusions.*** By OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES, M.D. Boston: W. D. Ticknor. 1842.

This volume embraces the substance of two lectures delivered before the Boston Society for the diffusion of Useful Knowledge. Dr. Holmes does not profess to have submitted the doctrines he examines with so much wit and ridicule to the test of long repeated and careful experiment, and he considers it of no manner of use for him to allege the results of any experiments he might have instituted. He enters upon the subject with little hope of reclaiming converts, with no desire of making enemies, but with a firm belief "that its pretensions and assertions cannot stand before a single hour of calm inquiry." Men of science who have investigated the theory and had some experience in the practice, think differently.

12.—***Man, A Soul; or the Inward, and the Experimental, Evidences of Christianity.*** By A. B. MURREY. Boston: William Crosby & Co. 1842.

We have ever considered the internal evidences of the truth of our holy religion as the most satisfactory. They speak directly to the "spirit in man" to which the "inspiration of the Almighty giveth understanding." In the little treatise before us, these evidences are presented in a clear, forcible, and convincing light; and we commend it to the careful perusal of all, and more especially to those who from education or other circumstance are inclined to skepticism touching the inborn truths of Christianity.

13.—***The Fountain, and other Poems.*** By WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT. 12mo. pp. 100. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

It is stated in a note addressed to the reader, that "the poems which compose this little volume have been written within the last five or six years—some of them merely as parts of a larger one planned by the author, which may possibly be finished hereafter." Bryant is emphatically *the* poet of America, and the productions of his pen will endure as long as the language in which they are written, or truth, poetry, and nature have an abiding place on this terrestial globe.

14.—*Life and Writings of Ebenezer Porter Mason: interspersed with Hints to Parents and Instructors on the Training and Education of a Child of Genius.* By Denison Olmsted. New York: Dayton & Newman. 1842.

The subject of this appropriate memoir was a remarkable example of the early development of genius; and in conformity to the practice of British writers, to give extended biographies of their youth, who, in the morning of life, exhibited extraordinary talents, and gave promise of the highest excellence, but sunk prematurely into the grave, Professor Olmsted has prepared a similar tribute to the extraordinary youth whom it commemorates, as due alike to his own memory, to the place of his education, and to his country. It appears to be the biographer's design that each passage shall serve some valuable end, in exhibiting the development of intellect, the lofty aim, the kind affections, the filial piety, or the struggles with sickness and penury, which marked the progress of young Mason from the cradle to the grave.

15.—*Elements of Logic; comprising the substance of the article in the Encyclopedia Metropolitana; with additions, etc.* By Richard Whately, D. D., Archbishop of Dublin. 12mo. pp. 359. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

In an age marked for the fertility of its novel theories and doctrines, in science as well as religion, the subject treated of in this volume would seem to recommend itself to every person who desires to reason forcibly or correctly. This elementary treatise holds a very high rank among the educational works of the day, having been introduced into many of the best managed and popular seminaries of learning, both in England and the United States. It is got up in the usually correct and beautiful style of most Boston books.

16.—*A Dictionary of Arts, Manufactures, and Mines.* By Andrew Ure, M.D., F.R.S. Illustrated with 1241 engravings. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Eleven numbers of this reprint of a most valuable work have already appeared, embracing more than seven hundred large octavo pages, printed on a small but clear type. The price of the work in numbers to subscribers is but five dollars, and the publishers state as a satisfaction to those who have so liberally patronized the work, that when the publication shall terminate it cannot be sold for less than seven dollars.

Gillott's Pens.—We are gratified to hear of the increased demand for these pens. Joseph Gillott has been for twenty-five years engaged in the manufacture, and he has during that time been enabled to make such improvements in their fabrication as at length to produce decidedly the best and most perfect article of the kind now in use. The increased demand for the article is, perhaps, the best evidence in their favor; and we therefore state from a source entitled to credit, the books of the manufacturer, that from October, 1838, to October, 1839, the number was 14,654,702; and from December, 1840, to the year ending December, 1841, 62,126,928; showing an increase, in two years, of about forty-seven millions of pens. The great number of counterfeits, both in this country and England, speaks strongly in favor of the genuine article.

Errata.—In our last number, chapter I., "on the Progress of Population and Wealth," etc., page 34, sixth line from the top, for "the whole slave population 17.76," read, "*the whole colored population, free and slave, 19.27 per cent.*" Same page, twenty-second line from the top, for "and where it constitutes a larger part of the population," read, "*and to such states as those in which the slaves constitute at least one tenth of the population.*" On page 36, nineteenth line from the top, read after, "*The increase from the first source was estimated by 'Dr. Seybert.'*" On page 38, second line from the bottom, for "77,000" read, "*probably about* 70,000."

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

SEPTEMBER, 1842.

THE PROPERTY OF THE NEW-YORK LYCEUM.

ART. I.—TRADE OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.*

PROGRESS OF RUSSIAN COMMERCE—IMPORTS INTO RUSSIA IN 1838—EXPORTS—NAVIGATION —TRADE WITH EUROPE AND AMERICA—ST. PETERSBURGH—LOCALITY—CRONSTADT— WHARFS—WAREHOUSES—THE BRAACKS—SHIPMENT OF EXPORTS—HEMP—FLAX—TALLOW—BRISTLES—LINSEED, ETC.

THE trade of Russia has risen to a great height, since the organization of the country was first commenced by Peter the Great, at the beginning of the preceding century. Considering the shortness of the period that has since then elapsed, the results attained are surprising to every reflecting observer, and there is every reason to presume that they will continue to grow in a progressively increasing annual ratio, from the steady measures pursued by government for improving agriculture and manufactures, the ways and means of interior communication, and the general state of the lower and middle classes of the natives, as well as of the numerous purely commercial towns in the interior, in order to keep their population augmenting.

Russia has a considerable annual balance of her trade with foreign countries in her favor, producing a constant influx of wealth, the diffusion of which amongst all classes of society, with a systematical propagation of knowledge by the continual augmentation of well adapted scientific establishments throughout the empire, ensures a further rapid progress of civilization, with its beneficial reaction as a stimulation to the demand for the comforts and luxuries of life. In 1838 the settled population of the empire, (exclusive of Poland and Finnland,) numbered 50,585,857 registered inhabitants, (whereof 25,460,645 of the male sex;) amongst these, 244,993, or 1 in 210, received instruction at 6 universities, 76 higher, 430 lower, 873 parochial, and 485 private schools, attended by 6,462

* For a comprehensive view of Russia and her commercial strength, embracing a description of her population and territory, physical, agricultural, and commercial resources, manufactures, and the commercial qualifications of the Russian people, see Merchants' Magazine for October, 1841, Vol. v. No. 4—page 287 to 321.

teachers, (against only 4,628 teachers in 1834.) In 1837 the increase by births gave 858,911. The number of glebæ adscripti does not now exceed 10 millions, and keeps on the decrease; while the mass of free peasantry and townsmen is augmenting fast. With the addition of the American and transcaucasian dominions, Poland and Finnland, the total number of Russian subjects reaches about 62 millions.

The following is a catalogue of the articles imported into Russia in 1838, which shows the nature of the imports of that country:—

1. *Articles of Consumption.*—Corn, flour, rice, wines, champagne, brandy and rum, porter, refined sugar, coffee, tea, lemon and other juices, fruit, spices, cocoa, herrings, oysters, table oil, salt, caviar, cheese, vinegar, tobacco, apothecaries' drugs, etc.

2. *Articles of Manufacture.*—Card paper, cotton wool, cotton yarn, raw silk, sheep's wool, woollen yarn, goats' wool, indigo, cochineal, madders, dyewoods, olive oil, drugs and drysalteries, chalks, hides, lime, raw sugar, unwrought metals, lead, grindstones, tortoise shell and ivory, cork wood, wood, seeds, brimstone, foil, pit coal, teasels, amber and mother of pearl, sundry dyes, glass pearls, watch work, utensils, machinery, and sundry articles.

3. *Manufactures.*—Paper, cotton, linen, and silken manufactures, woollen cloth and shawls, etc., lace, ladies' dress, leather articles, soap, scythes and sickles, cutlery, corks, mathematical instruments, musical instruments, watches, strings, earthenware, scented waters, straw hats, pencils, pearls, corals, precious stones, tiles, prints, printed books, furs, fish, curiosities.

4. *Quadrupeds and Birds.*—Cattle, horses, and birds.

The total value of these articles, embracing the total imports into Russia in 1838, amounted to—

Articles of consumption,	£2,655,528
" for manufacture,	5,688,291
Manufactures,	2,589,956
Quadrupeds and birds,	153,874
From Poland,	116,825
" Finnland,	55,317
Total,	£11,259,791 or $54,609,986

The following is a list of the articles of export from Russia in 1838, which will serve to show the character of the exports of that empire; the quantity of many of the articles is necessarily small:—

1. *Articles of Consumption.*—Wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, flour, corn, brandy, spirits and wine, spices, salt, caviar, fish, meat, butter, honey, molasses, refined sugar, fruit, coffee, tea, tobacco, drugs, etc.

2. *Articles for Manufactures.*—Flax, flax codilla, flaxen yarn, hemp, hemp codilla, hempen yarn, timber and deals, potashes, tallow, train oil, linseed, hempseed, hemp and linseed oil, drugs and dyes, bristles, horse hair, isinglass, glue, dressed and dried hides, leather, hare skins, bones, dyes, pitch and tar, beeswax, cotton yarn, raw silk, sheep's and other wool, goats' hair, feathers and downs, horns and hoofs, copper, iron and other metals, spun gold and silver.

3. *Manufactures.*—Hempen cordage, sail cloth, flems, ravenducks, linens, sundry manufactures of hemp and flax, cotton, silk, and woollen manufactures, woollen cloth, cloths and shirts, writing paper, wax candles, tal-

low candles, soap, manufactures of leather, silver and gold, and other metals, earthenware, trunks, glass, musical instruments, wooden articles, furs, pearls, corals, glass pearls, books and prints, mats, and precious stones.

4. *Quadrupeds.*—Oxen and cows, swine, etc., horses, and camels.

The total value of these articles exported from Russia in 1838, amounted to—

Articles for consumption,	£2,574,332
" " manufacture,	9,438,239½
" manufactured,	1,443,468
Quadrupeds,	153,204
To Poland,	436,073
To Finnland,	177,994
Total exports in 1838,	£14,223,310½ or $68,983,056

The 5,897 ships despatched from Russian ports in 1838, belonged to the following countries, viz:—

	Ships.	*Tons.*		*Ships.*	*Tons.*
To Russia,	963	150,144	To Mecklenburg,	244	32,476
" G. Britain,	1,773	363,830	" Oldenburg,	26	1,952
" Hanover,	148	12,696	" France,	120	20,268
" Sweden,	414	43,036	" Spain,	8	1,220
" Prussia,	179	26,636	" Italy,	351	85,812
" Denmark,	179	14,494	" Austria,	314	92,092
" Holland,	286	35,120	" Turkey,	328	55,382
" Bremen,	20	2,524	" Greece,	289	60,022
" Hamburg,	12	1,980	" The Ionian Isles	95	20,724
" Lubeck,	75	8,298	" North America	73	21,926

Total, 5,897 ships of 1,050,632 tons burden.

Of this number the import trade employed 2,433 ships of 428,464 tons.
" " the export " " 5,783 " 1,030,148 "

Together, 8,216 1,458,612

For which the freight paid must have exceeded three millions of pounds sterling, and was chiefly gained by foreign ship-owners. The coasting trade of Russia afforded employment to—

1,465 vessels, carrying goods for £521,971 between the northern ports,
5,655 " " " £730,179 " southern ports.

From the undermentioned dates, showing when the first ship arrived at, and the last sailed from each port, an idea can be formed of the duration of the navigation at each port, viz:—

	First Arrival.	*Latest Departure.*	*Interval of Navigation.*
1.—Cronstadt,	19th May, N. S.	16th Nov., N. S.	182 days.
2.—Narva,	18th May,	31st October,	167 "
3.—Revel,	24th April,	3d January, 1839,	255 "
4.—Kunda,	27th May,	15th December,	203 "
5.—Hapsal,	2d June,	8th December,	190 "
6.—Riga,	9th May,	19th December,	225 "
7.—Arensburg,	9th May,	27th November,	203 "
8.—Pernau,	9th May,	21st November,	197 "

	First Arrival.	*Latest Departure.*	*Interval of Navigation.*
9.—Libau,	19th April,	24th December,	251 days.
10.—Windaw,	28th April,	16th December,	243 "
11.—Archangel,	27th May,	17th October,	144 "
12.—Onega,	3d June,	8th October,	128 "
13.—Odessa,	22d February,	12th January, 1839,	325 "
14.—Theodosia,	27th February,	15th December,	292 "
15.—Taganrog,	2d March,	16th November,	250 "
16.—Kertch,	16th April,	19th November,	218 "
17.—Mariupol,	2d March,	17th December,	291 "
18.—Eupatoria,	11th February,	14th December,	307 "
19.—Ismail,	9th March,	20th December,	287 "
20.—Reni,	26th March,	20th November,	240 "
21.—Reduct Kale	26th January,	10th January, 1839,	350 "
22.—Astrachan,	5th May,	10th December,	220 "
23.—Baku,	5th February,	9th January, 1839,	339 "

N. B.—In 1838 the navigation of the twelve northern ports opened later, and closed earlier, than usual.

In the foregoing statement the valuation of exports may pass for a pretty exact amount of invoice cost, paid for by foreign countries. The valuation of the imports from Europe and America, rather exceeds the probable invoice cost with insurance, freight, and sound dues, remitted for by Russia, and in a few cases includes the duty paid in Russia: this excess of valuation is, in all probability, more than sufficient to cover the contraband importation, which must be taken into account in striking the balance of trade. The contraband import trade in Russia is not extensive, the risk and expense connected with it being very great, and we cannot at any rate assume it to exceed the allowance we make for it, in estimating the overvaluation of the imports at about £200,000. In other respects the year 1838 affords a fair general criterion of the state of the Russian trade in latter times, as well as for some time to come.

From official tables we are enabled to obtain the following results, viz:

1. Relative to the trade with Europe and America:

Amount of Exports		£13,392,063½
" Imports		9,948,491
Balance in favor of Russia		£3,433,572½
This was partly made up for by a surplus importation of gold and silver in 1838, equal to about	£1,277,640	
With an additional supply of these metals received during the months of January, February, and March, 1839, of at least	1,000,000	
		£2,277,640
Leaving an uncovered sum of		£1,165,932½

Which was probably required for paying the interest due to foreign holders of Russian stock and other sums wanted abroad.

2. Relative to the trade with Asia:—Amount of Imports	£1,311,300
" Exports	831,247
Balance against Russia . .	£480,053
Deducting for surplus exportation of gold and silver to Asia in 1838	99,673
There seems to have remained uncovered, a sum of	£380,380

Of which a part at least, if not even the whole, may perhaps be assumed not to have been due to Asia at all, but to have arisen from an overvaluation of the imports obtained in barter for exports, and declared at the market prices in Russia in default of prime cost quotations at the frontier towns, where the customhouse reports are composed by the voluntary declarations of value, made by the importers, and it is very likely that the Asiatic trade of Russia was balanced by the above-mentioned amount of gold and silver, or a little more, not reported.

On the foregoing premises we think ourselves justified in concluding, that in latter times Russia has derived an annual increase of wealth of about two millions sterling from her trade with foreign countries; which, with the addition of the increasing produce of her gold and silver mines, accounts for the present abundance of metallic currency in the country, and has enabled the Russian government to re-establish the silver and gold standard of payment.

The export and import trade of Russia in 1838, amounting together to £25,483,101½, was carried on by 489 firms, amongst which there are about 137 Russian names, most of them in the Asiatic trade; the rest comprising 317 firms of Russian subjects of foreign extraction, and 35 firms of foreign guests. The joint business of these guests amounted to £5,724,321.

St. Petersburgh.—Locality.—This splendid modern metropolis and flourishing emporium of the Russian empire, founded by Peter the Great in 1703, is situated at the eastern extremity of the Gulf of Finnland, on the banks and islands of the river Neva, in lat. 59 deg. 56 min. 23 sec. N., longitude 30 deg. 18 min. 45 sec. E. In 1837 its population had already increased to 468,625 inhabitants, from 220,208 in 1800. It contains 7,976 buildings, valued at £7,657,000 sterling, and 1,672 gardens are attached to the houses. The greater and best built part of the town, containing the Imperial winter residence, with a great many other palaces, and the two principal dock-yards of the admiralty, is situated on the SE. or continental shore of the river Neva. In the opposite quarter there are several islands, the principal of which, called Vassilievsky Isle, is also well built, having 50,000 inhabitants, and may be considered the focus of the commerce of Russia; the customhouse with its warehouses and warehousing square, its quays and the splendid edifice of the Exchange, occupying the projecting East-end of it, opposite the Emperor's Palace, from which it is separated by the great Neva. All supplies of produce from the interior, brought down by water, as well as the imports from sea, constituting together half of the foreign trade of the whole empire, must pass this narrow channel, in bark, craft, or ship.

At and above town the great Neva is deep, and navigable for ships of any size; but below the island of Vassilievsky, where the river disem-

bogues, shoals extend to some distance from the shores, leaving only a narrow navigable channel in the middle, in which there is generally nine, but frequently only six to seven feet water, according as the state of the winds causes a flow of water to or from the Gulf; so that ships drawing above 8½ feet water, cannot proceed to the loading and unloading wharfs and warehouses on the great Neva at town, but must remain at the gigantic water gate and maritime fortress of Cronstadt, which is situated on an island, about twenty miles down the Gulf, and in fact forming the port of St. Petersburgh, it having a fine merchants' harbor fitted to contain 600 ships of any size, in perfect safety. There all the larger ships discharge their cargoes and load again from craft, employed for transporting goods to and from St. Petersburgh; which is now greatly facilitated and accelerated by the aid of fourteen or fifteen steam tugs.

Ships from sea have to come up to the harbor through a narrow passage from west to east, between the forts of Cronslot on the starboard, and Cronstadt on the larboard side, entering the mole at north. In bad weather, particularly in westerly gales, the above narrow passage is, of course, no convenient or safe place for ships to ride in at anchor, and this prevents them in autumn, though ready for sea, to haul out of the harbor into the said passage, before the wind is so fair as to admit of their proceeding to seaward at once.

The navigation between St. Petersburgh and Cronstadt is not dangerous for craft above ten tons burden, there being a good beating scope of about ten miles breadth and eighteen miles length in two and a half to three and a half fathoms water in safe anchoring ground. The craft employed consists of covered lighters of from 40 to 100 tons burden, and half-covered barges, of very good construction, of from ten to eighty tons burden. Insurances ordered to be effected on goods to and from St. Petersburgh are understood to include risk of craft between the town and Cronstadt harbor.

We must now return to St. Petersburgh, to take a short view of the situation of the wharfs and other places, where goods are stored, received, weighed, loaded, and landed. In approaching the town, we find to the right, the Gootovieff island, which is the place where imported herrings are landed and warehoused under the customhouse lock. A little further up, likewise on the right side, on another island, is the tallow wharf and its warehouse, from which this article is shipped. Nearly opposite thereto, to the left, on the Vassilievsky island, are the hempoil and potashes wharfs and warehouses, also surrounded by water, where these two articles are laid up for shipment. These three wharfs enjoy the advantage of there being no bridges to pass to and from them, on the way to Cronstadt.

The first bridge across the great Neva is the *Isaac Bridge*, which (the same as the other bridges) is built on floats, and high enough to admit of lighters, that can lower masts, passing under it. Such lighters as cannot put down their masts, and ships, must pass it in the night time, when it is opened for that purpose. In proceeding onward from this bridge, we keep our eye to the left on the Vassilievsky island, and at its extremity we pass by a large gray stone building, which is a customhouse bonding warehouse; then in turning the corner to the left, we get a full view of the Exchange, after which we proceed westward into the little Neva, and get first to the customhouse quay, with the customhouse in front, and the other bonding warehouses adjoining it. On this customhouse quay, all imports brought up from Cronstadt (except herrings, which remain at the Gootovieff island,

and brimstone and alum landed at another place,) must be discharged for warehousing and bonding until payment of duties. Behind the exchange and the customhouse premises, there is a large square called America, enclosed by an iron grate fence, and surrounded by a double row of trees, where all bulky goods, for which there is not room in the warehouses, or such as can bear exposure to the air, such as lead, mahogany in blocks, dyewoods, corkwood, &c., are laid up for bonding, under mat covers.

Below the customhouse, on the same quay, is a large triangular stone building, and behind this, a square one, not quite so large, both of two stories, containing the numerous private warehouses (owned by some and rented by others) of the merchants for laying up linens, horse hair, hides, bristles, isinglass, and a variety of other exports, for which there are no other distinct wharfs, and which are shipped from the customhouse quay, as well as for warehousing imports when taken out of bond, if it be not preferred to leave them in the warehouses (which may be done,) even after payment of duty.

Below the customhouse quay are the private warehouses of some of the great owners of mines in the interior for laying up the iron and copper belonging to them, destined to be sold for exportation or consumption on the spot. Opposite to this part of the quay, across the river, on a little island, we find the principal hemp and flax wharf and warehouses. A short distance above this is another small island, holding warehouses for landing and bonding brimstone and alum, and a few other articles fit to go there. From these quarters the lighters in proceeding to Cronstadt must pass by the exchange, and then go through the Isaac bridge on the great Neva, the lower parts of the little Neva, behind the Vassilievsky island, not being navigable.

From the brimstone and alum warehouses we again ascend the river, and having passed through the second, called the *Trinity Bridge* (at the broadest part of the great Neva) we perceive on the left shore (belonging to what is called the *Petersburgh quarter* of the town) the first building erected by Russians in this neighborhood, namely, a little wooden house, preserved under a double roof, and surrounded by trees, which was the first residence of Peter the Great, while the foundation of St. Petersburgh was commenced in 1703. Next to it is the second or Gagavin hemp wharf and warehouses, to which is taken such part of the hemp arriving by the barks as exceeds what the first warehouses opposite the customhouse can hold. From this second hemp wharf lighters have accordingly to pass through two bridges on their way to Cronstadt.

If thence we continue ascending the great Neva, pass through the third or *Resurrection Bridge*, and a good way above it, we then reach the extreme part of the town on the continental east side, where, in the neighborhood of the St. Alexander Nevsky's Monastery, there is a part of the river commonly called the *Nevsky Shore*, which is the place where the linseed and corn barks lay up, and small ships and lighters receive their cargoes of these articles for carrying them to Cronstadt, having three bridges to pass on that trip. During summer linseed and corn remain in the barks, in which they arrive from the interior, and out of which they are sold and delivered into craft; landing and warehousing (on the same shore) is only resorted to by the dealers, late in autumn, with such part of their stocks as then remain unsold.

At all the wharfs the warehouses are built of stone; work is only done

in the daytime, and no lights permitted to be used at all, in order to avoid danger from fire. The first hemp wharf, the brimstone, tallow, potashes, and hempoil wharfs, are, as mentioned, situated on islands, and all the warehouses alluded to are isolately situated, at a certain distance from inhabitable buildings. The first stories (above the cellars) of the custom-house bonding warehouses and the bonding square are besides so much elevated, that even in case of an inundation similar to that which happened in November, 1824, the water cannot reach the goods laid up there, only wines and the like being put into the cellars.

The shipment of exports.—The purchases of goods for exportation are either made by direct contract between the sellers and buyers, or through sworn brokers, (not allowed to transact any business for their own account,) of whom there is a certain number, elected by the merchants and installed by government, as mediators between the sellers and buyers, in regard to the description, quantity, and price of the goods, and the conditions of payment. These brokers are furnished by government with stamped books, in which they have to keep record of the transactions they negotiate, and granting corresponding notes to the parties concerned in a bargain. In fulfilment of contracts so concluded, the delivery of the goods from the seller to the buyer, preceding the shipment, implies an inspection of their quality in order to make sure of their being conformable to terms. In regard to most articles the contractors are allowed to manage and settle this point between themselves. But in respect to some of the principal ones there is a public establishment called the *braack*, or official inspection of the goods sold for exportation, attached to the delivery, for determining certain legally established degrees of quality and denominations; to which inspection both sellers and buyers have to submit, the object being to ensure a uniform standard of quality in the assortment of goods brought forward.

This establishment of the braack refers to the following staple articles, namely: 1. Hemp; 2. Hemp codilla; 3. Flax; 4. Flax, tow, and codilla; 5. Tallow; 6. Linseed oil; 7. Hempseed oil; 8. Isinglass; 9. Caviar; 10. Beeswax; 11. Potashes; 12. Bristles; 13. Horse hair; 14. Russia leather; and 15. Tobacco in leaves. The braackers are elected by the Russian and foreign merchants from amongst merchants who have left off trade. After having undergone an examination to prove their competent knowledge of the article of which they are to become inspectors, they are installed in their offices by the department of foreign trade, and sworn to the faithful and impartial performance of their duties, in accordance with the existing regulations. Accordingly, a factor, or commission agent at St. Petersburgh, having, by order of his employer abroad, to buy and ship a specified quantity of any description of produce subject to the braack, is not liable to any responsibility in the event of the article being found, upon delivery abroad, to be of inferior quality, provided he furnish a certificate that it has been officially inspected or braacked, for he cannot interfere with the braack, and is only at liberty, if he think that a braacker has neglected his duty by passing an inferior sort for a higher one, to call a committee of other braackers and merchants for the reinspection of such parcel. This he has to do before shipping the goods, for if no objection has then been made, no claim can afterwards be established, either against the seller or the braacker. There is, however, seldom if ever occasion to resort to the expedient of calling a committee.

the braackers on the one hand taking care to keep within the letter of the regulations; while on the other, in regard to some articles, the growth or produce of one year differs so much in average quality from that of another, that the standard of the different sorts of such articles is in some measure fixed anew every year, when the new braack opens, according to the average quality of the growth or supply brought forward, and the bulk of it is not, nor can fairly be, equal in quality to some extra fine parcels found amongst it; and there is no possibility of all orders being effected out of such extra fine parcels, which are scarce, and when to be had at all, fetch an extra price, by private agreement between the buyer and seller, while what is barely within the standard, is the common run of quality at the current market price, and when a lot happens to be a shade inferior to that common run, then the holders sometimes submit to an allowance in price in order to induce buyers.

In fulfilment of contract purchases made in anticipation of goods to arrive, a common run of quality within the letter of the regulations of the braack can only be insisted upon, and no one contract buyer can obtain an advantage in quality over the other by law; though he may, by making an allowance in price to the contract seller, induce the latter to deliver a superior quality, if his stock of goods afford it. Thus, for example, we may in regard to purchases of hemp, assume the following scale of sorts, qualities, and corresponding prices, as coming pretty near to the custom in the trade, by valuing—

	Clean Hemp.	*Outshot.*	*Half-clean.*
Of a common run of quality at	Ro. 26	Ro. 22¾	Ro. 21½
A superior quality	" 26¼ a ½	" 23 a 23¼	" 21¾ a 22
And an inferior quality . . .	" 25¾	" 22½	" 21¼

From this it follows, that inferior clean hemp, valued at Ro. 25¾, must still be materially superior to outshot, worth only Ro. 23¼ for the best, and Ro. 22¾ for a common run, and it would not be fair to require such clean hemp to be condemned for outshot. The final conclusion is, that in fact, the official braack establishes the *grosser* distinctions of 1st, 2d, and 3d sorts, while the sellers and buyers, privately between them, make the *nicer* distinctions of superior, ordinary, and inferior qualities of each sort, with adequate differences in price, the commission agent thus managing to obtain goods of a quality that is worth the money paid for it. In a rising market, or in great bustle of deliveries at the wharfs, or when the stocks left on sale are low, the difficulty of obtaining pennyworths is much greater than in a declining or a quiet market. The ship or craft being ready to take on board the goods at the wharf, a bill of entry is by the shipper given in at the customhouse in due form, for such quantity and quality as is intended to be shipped, with a declaration of the value. After weighing and delivering, the precise quantities passed for such ship or craft are attested on the bill of entry by the proper officers; the amount of duty, if any, is then computed and paid in at the customhouse against acquittance on some bill. The contents of these bills of entry are then embodied in what is called the ship's pass, issued by the customhouse at St. Petersburgh, after paying off the port charges due by the ship. Such a pass is sent down to the customhouse at Cronstadt, where, being registered, it is delivered to the master of the ship, with leave to proceed to sea. The entry and clearance of goods and ships at the customhouse is connected with certain formalities, the due observance of which requires the attendance of the merchant, or of a clerk on his behalf, at the custom-

house, in order to keep every thing in a due state of forwardness and despatch.

The charges attending the receival and shipment of goods at St. Petersburgh, are not confined to the regular pay of the official inspectors and the workmen employed; many other incidental, direct and indirect expenses, such as coach hire for going from one wharf or warehouse to another, the wages of outdoor clerks and other trustworthy men, required to attend and superintend the receiving, weighing, braacking, embaling, attesting, &c. of goods; the encashing and counting of money, the carrying of messages, the ordering and attending of lighters; with the subscriptions to price currents, ships' lists, commercial and official papers, customhouse reports, &c.—are incurred, and come to a comparatively considerable amount in the course of the year. For these incidental expenses but a very slight allowance has been made by the factory in the fixed rates of the charges to be made in invoices, while the 1 per cent brought in besides under the denomination of "extra charges," unless the business of a house be very extensive, is barely sufficient to cover the annual guild rates, town dues, and taxes that have to be borne by every merchant, in addition to counting-house rent and wages of indoor clerks. The shipment of goods at St. Petersburgh is besides always attended with loss of interest; for as soon as the parcel is received, the whole amount has immediately to be paid out to the seller in cash, (no space of 14 days being customary, and the dealers giving a decided preference to buyers who are always flush of cash,) while in the most cases two, and frequently three to four weeks elapse, before the goods get down to Cronstadt, and are taken on board there by the ships, so as to admit of the masters returning the bills of lading signed; and it is only on receipt of the latter, that the commission agent is by custom entitled to furnish the invoice and draw for the amount on his principal. The charges for commission, &c. made in invoices, are therefore moderate and well earned. We think it right to complete these general remarks by communicating some more practical observations on such of the principal articles of export from Russia, as are most frequently found to attract the attention of speculative importers in Great Britain and the United States.

Hemp.—The supplies of this article brought to St. Petersburgh, are derived from the governments of Kaluga, Orel, Kursk, Tula, Smolensk, Mohileff, and Tschernigoff. The braack distinguishes three sorts, namely: clean, outshot, and half clean, in two classes—uncut and cut. The bulk consists of the former class; the cut hemp being a peculiar kind, not in general demand, though generally Ro. 2½ per berquet dearer than uncut. The other general distinctions of winter-dried, spring-dried, and middle-dried hemps, sometimes mentioned in correspondence, are of minor interest to the importer, as they afford no precise criterion of quality, some one or other of their denominations proving alternately of better quality than the rest, and it being the business of the commission agent at St. Petersburgh to ascertain which kind is preferable, accordingto existing circumstances.

Hemp is shipped, bound, and compressed into bundles; a bundle of clean weighs between 60 and 65, of outshot between 50 and 60, and of half clean between 40 and 50 poods, of which 63 poods are assumed to yield a ton of 20 cwt. The supplies are brought down to St. Petersburgh chiefly by water, in large vessels or barks, the principal parts arriving in June and July, and the rest later. A certain number, or transport of

barks, is called a caravan, which gives rise to the distinction of June, July, August, &c. caravans. During the winter season, that is from November to May, or from one shipping season to the other, purchases are made in anticipation of the ensuing supply, for delivery on its arrival, and sometimes also of hemp of the preceding supply remaining over on the spot, the latter being ready for early spring shipment, while the exportation of contract hemp can seldom take place before midsummer. The various periods of delivery stipulated for in such contracts, are—1. Delivery by the first *double* gang barks, meaning such as are navigated and pulled on by two sets of laborers and horses, one set being at work in the day, and the other in the night time. These barks sometimes reach St. Petersburgh by the end of May, and the hemp they bring generally fetches an extra price. 2. Delivery by the first single gang barks, which usually arrive ten days or a fortnight later than the foregoing. 3. Delivery in June and July, but not later than 31st July, old style, being the maturity of such contracts, it being optional with the seller to deliver in all June and July, according as his barks arrive. The bulk of contract hemp is thus usually shipped in July and August. 4. Delivery by the 15th or 31st August, or by the 15th or 30th September, as the bargain may be. Such contract purchases are either made on condition of the purchase money agreed for being payable on delivery of the goods, with only a hand-money of about Ro. 3 per berquet, paid down in advance on closing the contract, or on condition of the whole amount being paid down in advance when the contract is concluded, the seller signing a bond, binding himself to deliver so much hemp at such a price in lieu of the money received, and in case of non-fulfilment at maturity, to refund so much money as will buy the quantity and qualities contracted for at the current market prices. There is generally a difference of 1 per cent per month made between the hand-money and the cash advance prices, as an equivalent of outlay and credit incurred in the latter case. When the exchange happens to be under par during winter, whereas it may generally be expected to rule from 2 to 3 per cent above par in August, or later, contract purchases made for cash may prove very beneficial, even without taking any probable subsequent advance into account. The following calculation will show this more clearly:—assuming 630 berquets (equal to 100 tons) to have been bought on contract in December, for July delivery, at Ro. 27, with Ro. 3 per berquet hand-money, being an amount of S. Ro. 17,010, whereof Ro. 1,990 paid down in December, and Ro. 15,020 on delivery, the amount is drawn for—

Ro. 1,990 on the 15th Dec. at 39d., making		£ 323 7s.	6d.
And " 15,020 " 1st August at 41d. . . .		2,560 18	4
	Together,	£2,884 5	10
Whereas the same quantity bought at Ro. 25¼, all the money down, amounting to Ro. 15,876, drawn for 15th Dec. at 39d., would stand in only . . .	£2,579 17 0		
With interest for 7¼ months at 5 per cent per annum	80 12 6		
		2,660 9	6

The sterling difference in favor of the cash purchase is £223 16 4
Being near 8¼ above the interest of the amount.

Purchases made during summer of hemp on the spot, have the advantage of a more certain choice of quality; but in the natural course of things, not only the exchange, but also the prices may then be expected to be much higher than during the contract season, when the dealers sometimes make cheap sales of a part of their stock to arrive in order to raise money. The value of the annual supply of hemp brought to St. Petersburgh market is about £1,000,000 sterling, and provided by 24 to 25 dealers, the greater part of whom are very wealthy and respectable people. The extent and gradual increase of the total exportation of hemp from all ports of Russia will appear from the following statement of it, viz:—

From 1758 to 62	the average was . .	32,435	tons per annum.
1763 to 77	" . . .	34,851	"
1800 to 14	" . . .	47,505	"
1815 to 24	" . . .	42,854	"
1825 to 32	" . . .	37,760	"
1833 to 37	" . . .	46,358	"
And in 1838	" . . .	51,778	"

Calculation of the cost of hemp from St. Petersburgh, imported into London, viz: 1 ton of 63 poods, bought in July at Ro. 27, and drawn for at shipment at an exchange of 41d. 3m/d., would stand in free on board £32 13s. 4d.

With insurance on £33 at 15 per cent . .	£0	5	0
Sound duty	0	5	0
Freight	2	10	0
Duty	0	1	8
Russia dues, landing, &c. . . .	0	7	6
			3 9 2
Cost from the London scale, . . .			36 2 6
Discount on £38 10s. for 9 months at 3½ per cent,	1	8	11
Brokerage do. ¼ do.	0	3	10
Commission do 2 do.	0	15	5
			2 8 2
Cost for sale to clear a commission, . .			£38 10 8

Warehousing and rent not being reckoned.

Flax.—The different descriptions of this article, brought to St. Petersburgh, are distinguished according to the districts from which they come; the corresponding denominations are—Novgorod, Pleskau, Carelia, and Vesnikovsky flaxes. Such flax from the first named two districts as is not steeped in water is called Slanetz, being of a much finer and softer harle than the common run. We have further to notice the following general distinctions, viz: 1st. Flax raised on fresh soils, cultivated for the first time, which is of a somewhat harsh harle, but otherwise strong and superior. 2d. Flax raised on fields long cultivated, being fine harled and good. 3d. The Carelia flax is usually of a longer and stronger harle than any other, and, almost invariably, also whiter. 4th. The Vesni-

kovsky flax is of a very fine silky harle, very strong, and of a grayish or silver tinge. 5th. The quality and color of Novgorod and Pleskau flaxes is very variable, from white to gray and dark gray; also bluish, yellowish, and whitish. At the public braack the different descriptions are kept separate, and each is classified into three gradations of quality or sorts, namely: The first sort, made up for shipment into bobbins containing 12 heads each, and weighing about 3½ poods the bobbin; the second sort made up in bobbins of 9 heads each, and weighing about 2 poods the bobbin; and the third sort made up in bobbins of 6 heads each, and weighing about 1½ poods each. Sixty-three poods are generally reckoned to yield a ton. The difference in price made between the sorts is a good deal dependent on circumstances; but may be assumed at Ro. 3 to 4 between 12 and 9 heads, and at Ro. 3 or 3½ between 9 and 6 heads per berquet of 10 poods.

During winter purchases are made either of parcels that remain over on the spot from the preceding year's supply, or on contract for parcels to be delivered during the ensuing summer, either with a hand-money of Ro. 3, 4 to 6 per berquet down, the rest payable on delivery, or with all the money in advance; an allowance in price being made in the latter case for outlay and credit similar to that customary in contract purchases of hemp. The flax dealers trading to St. Petersburgh are not, however, in the habit of selling any considerable portion of their supplies on contract at the cash prices unless the growth prove very abundant, most of them preferring to await the summer demand. Unless the supply in view be very large, and prices disproportionately high, it is perhaps advisable in the St. Petersburgh market to make purchases before August, for in and after that month prices are very frequently found to take sudden starts, from the competition of numerous buyers who sometimes happen to have to provide for ships waiting for cargoes; besides this the consideration of the exchange usually advancing towards autumn has not to be lost sight of. The annual extent of supplies varies very much. The total exportation of flax from Russia amounted in 1836 to 48,435 tons, in 1837 to 37,366 tons, and in 1838 to 55,060 tons. From St. Petersburgh it shaped as follows during the last five years, viz:

Exportation in	1835	1836	1837	1838	1839
Of 12 heads, tons,	11	107	452	830	694
9 " "	1,413	5,265	6,006	9,367	1,826
6 " "	1,008	3,521	1,178	2,032	439
Total,	2,432	8,893	7,636	12,229	2,983
Tow and Codilla,	855	1,673	889	2,106	651

And at the close of the navigation of 1839 the quantities remaining over on the spot were 425 tons of 12 heads, 3,556 tons of 9 heads, and 941 tons of 6 heads; in all 4,922 tons of flax, with 651 tons of tow and codilla.

Calculation of the cost of 9 heads flax from St. Petersburgh imported into London. 1 ton of 63 poods bought in July at Ro. 29 per berquet, and drawn for at shipment, at an exchange of 41d. per Ro. at three months

date, would cost free on board				£36	1s. 4d.
With insurance of £37 at 15 per cent .	£0	5	7		
Sound duty	0	6	0		
Freight	2	10	0		
Duty	0	1	8		
Russia dues, landing, &c. . .	0	8	0		
				3	11 3
Cost from the London scale . .				£39	12 7
Discount on £42 10s. for 9 months at 3½d. per cent	£1	11	11		
Brokerage " ¼d. per cent . .	0	4	3		
Commission " 2 " . .	0	17	0		
				2	13 2
Cost for sale to clear a commission .				£42	5 9

Warehousing and rent not reckoned.

Tallow.—This animal fat forms the most important article of exportation from Russia. It is shipped in casks weighing from 8 to 10½ cwt. gross each. The tare varies between 10 and 12 per cent, and is ascertained by starting and weighing 1 or 2 casks in 10; or if they run of pretty uniform size, 6 in 100. The braacking and taring takes place as soon as a parcel of tallow sold is deliverable to the buyer for shipment. The supply brought to St. Petersburgh comprises five descriptions of tallow, namely—1. Yellow candle in two sorts; 2. Lopatny in one sort, called second candle; 3. White candle, in two sorts; 4. Siberia soap, in three sorts; and 5. Ordinary soap, in three sorts, as classified at the public braack. The major part of the supply consists of candle tallow. In some parts of the country the smaller local dealers in cattle, having small parcels only, separate the fat from the flesh of the animal, and melt the former down by itself into casks, or sell it in its raw state to the greater dealers. This fat, if very pure, does not require much heating to become liquid and be poured into casks, and is called single melted, or *odnojarnoe salo*, being the best *yellow* tallow, if taken from full grown cattle, and light yellow if taken from young cattle, with a slight greenish tinge. The trade of other extensive dealers in larger towns, situated in populous parts, is to buy up parcels of fat in its raw state, without much flesh being attached thereto, as well as single melted parcels of tallow, and then to remelt the whole at their melting houses, in order to get uniform large parcels of tallow. This forms the principal part of the supply of yellow tallow, called double melted. The parcels of different dealers differ in quality, some being purer, consequently of better color and substance, than others. What goes by the name of Ukraine double melted, is generally better than that from Moscow and other parts; but this is no rule.

White tallow is obtained from the fat of Russian sheep and goats, which, while melting, is poured into the casks by degrees in frosty weather, 50 to 100 empty casks being placed in a row and filled in turn by cup-fulls of 5 to 100 at a time, forming thus thin layers in the casks, which whiten from the effect of the cold in the intervals of pouring in. When this process is undertaken in mild weather, the want of frost prevents the layers from whitening through, and they are then not only irregular, but the bulk gets a very streaky and specky appearance, constituting the second

sort of white candle tallow. Ordinary soap tallow is chiefly derived from pure Kalmyk sheep's fat; while the Siberia soap tallow is a mixture of Kalmyk sheep and oxen fat, and thus reckoned to be worth 5 per cent more than the former. Oxen are reckoned to yield from 150 to 225 lbs. English each; Russian sheep from 23 to 36 lbs. each, and Kalmyk sheep from 36 to 54 lbs. each of fat; the waste by melting down is from 10 to 12 per cent.

St. Petersburgh receives its supplies chiefly from the governments of Ekaterinoslav, Poltava, Charkolt, Kursk, Voronesh, Oriel, Kaluga, Tula; which together furnish from 40 to 60,000 casks; from the Moscow government about 40,000 casks, collected from many parts and melted down in that capital; Siberia sends from 20 to 25,000 casks, and other parts, Saratov, Tambov, &c., from 30 to 40,000 casks, making in all from 130 to 165,000 casks per annum, according to the condition of the cattle.—Archangel is supplied from the governments of Vologda, Viatka, Perm, and Tobolsk; Riga from Kaluga, Kursk, and the Ukraine; Odessa and other ports on the Black Sea, from Kiév, Volhenía, Padolia, Cherson, Poltava, Ekaterinoslav, Bessarabia, and the Crimée.

The average exportation of the fifteen years, 1833 to 1837, was—

From St. Petersburgh	55,793	tons.
Archangel	835	"
Riga	318	"
Odessa and the Black Sea	8,384	"
Total,	65,330	tons per ann.

Besides which an extensive, *continually increasing*, inland consumption is provided for. The following statement of averages shows the gradual increase of the exportation since 1767; it having been—

From 1767 to 1769	4,402	tons per ann.
1769 to 1795	17,170	"
1800 to 1814	24,843	"
1814 to 1824	38,800	"
1824 to 1834	62,165	"

It has thus remained pretty stationary since 1824; and latterly it has probably reached its maximum extent for the inland consumption increasing with the growing civilization of the country, the proportion that can be spared for exportation is for the future more likely to diminish than augment, particularly from the Baltic.

If, as some persons have calculated, the annual consumption of tallow in Great Britain and Ireland, be now about 180,000 tons or upwards; whereof two thirds supplied by the home produce and only one third imported from foreign countries, it would follow, that the value of the article in the British markets must be chiefly dependent on the annual variations in the home produce, in which an increase or decrease of 10 per cent makes a much greater difference than the same ratio in Russia; and that, when the decrease in the quantity of British tallow happens to be 10 per cent, or 12,000 tons in any one year, (equal to about 30,000 Russian casks,) it would constitute so great a deficiency as is not likely to be made up by Russia in addition to the present extent of supply from that country, where the late average seems to be barely equal to the foreign demand, even in years where the home produce of Great Britain has proved most

abundant, as it was the case in 1838, when the exportation from St. Petersburgh was only 4 per cent short of the succeeding one of 1839, and even that difference arising merely from an extra quantity of soap tallow.

The following detailed statement of the quantities of different sorts exported from St. Petersburgh in 1838 and 1839, will prove more clearly what we have just alleged. We besides subjoin an approximate scale of the average prices of the different sorts and gradations of sorts in 1839, reduced in silver, viz:

	Exported in 1838. *Casks.*	*Exported in* 1839. *Casks.*	*Approximate scale of prices in* 1839.
Of 1st yellow cand. tallow,	122,401	118,248	Odnojarnoi, Ro. 37¼ Ukraine, " 36¼ Ordinary, " 36¼
2d do. do.	7,028	12,932	" 34¼
2d candle or Lopatny,	2,635	1,727	" 35¼
1st white candle,	3,462	2,516	" 38
1st Siberia soap,	2,074	4,231	" 35
2d do.	195	2,092	" 33½
3d do.	20	108	" —
1st ordinary soap,	8,170	7,111	" 34
2d do.	364	1,424	" 32½
3d do.	5	313	" —
Total,	146,354	150,702	
Nett weight—tons,	57,243	59,603	

(Reckoning 62 poods to a ton.) The supply of 1839 was brought forward by 98 dealers, 4 of them had 10,283, 10,189, 9,725, and 9,033 casks; 3 from 5,071 to 5,976 casks each; 3 from 4,065 to 4,821 casks each; 1 3,719 casks; 14 from 2,017 to 2,974 casks each; 29 from 1,009 to 1,929 casks each; 19 from 504 to 990 casks each; 25 from 35 to 497 casks; total 164,168 casks—whereof 4,000 casks went into town consumption, and 9,466 casks remained over unsold.

At St. Petersburgh the contract purchases of tallow for delivery during any month of the following shipping season (from May to September) begin about November, and are either made with about Ro. 3 per berkwert hand-money, the balance payable on delivery, or with all the money in advance; in the latter case with an allowance of about one per cent per month for outlay and credit. Sometimes one half to two thirds of the whole expected supply is contracted for in this manner before the navigation opens. Unless prices be run up high in London during winter, these contract purchases at St. Petersburgh for cash, generally prove advantageous, particularly when made between March and May, for August and September delivery; the dealers being sometimes in want of money towards spring, and then more inclined to sell for late than for early delivery. During the summer months, when supplies are partly on the spot and dropping down gradually till autumn, the dealers generally are tough holders, watching the demand, and only selling as they want money; yet unless the total supply in view be large, and a considerable portion of it not yet sold on contract, it may be advisable to make purchases (of ready or deliverable goods) before August, in which month and September, prices

are very apt to advance suddenly, when a competition of buyers having to provide for ships waiting for cargoes, favors the dealers in raising their demands.

Calculation of the cost of 1st yellow candle tallow from St. Petersburgh, imported into London.

1 ton of 63 poods nett, bought in August at Ro. 37 per berkwert and drawn for at shipment at 41d. per Ro., 3 months date, would cost free on board			£44 13 4
With insurance on £45, at 1½ per cent . .	£0 10 2		
Sound duty	0 3 9		
Freight on the gross weight . . .	1 13 0		
Duty	3 3 4		
Russia dues landing, &c. . . .	0 5 6		
			5 15 9
Cost from the London scale, . . .			£50 9 1
Discount of £53 for 6 months at 2½ per cent .	£1 6 6		
Brokerage " " ½ . .	0 5 4		
Commission " " 2 . .	1 1 3		
			2 13 1
Cost for sale to clear a commission . . .			£53 2 2

Warehousing and rent not reckoned.

Bristles.—The supplies of this hair of hogs, are brought to St. Petersburgh for sale by the dealers trading therein, being collected by them throughout the whole empire, and prepared at their establishments in the interior, where the cleaning, assorting, and binding into bundles, is accomplished by expert workmen. There are two chief distinctions of quality made, namely, of bristles obtained from the ridge of the hog's back, and of those from the flanks of the animal. The former are selected and braacked into two sorts, viz: Okatka, into which the longest and strongest of 5½ inches English and above are taken, and first sort, comprising the remainder, of less uniform length and strength. The latter are likewise picked into two sorts, viz: the dried or Suckaya, being the better part; and the second sort, composed of what remains. Bristles are of white, gray, black, and yellow color; it is most customary to assort the Okatka and Siberia bristles in equal proportions of white, gray, and black, and such are termed "assorted." Purchases are also made of single colors separately. Bristles sell by the pood, and are exported packed into casks holding between 9 and 9½ cwt. nett weight; it is frequently preferred to have them put into half casks, or any smaller size that suits the buyer.

The extent of the annual supplies varies a good deal, a greater number of full grown swine being killed in one year than in another, according as agricultural produce, fit for feeding them, happens to be scarce or abundant in the interior. During the undermentioned three years Russia furnished the following quantities for exportation, viz: in 1836, 19,686 cwt.; in 1837, 18,901 cwt.; and in 1838, 27,069 cwt.—average of the three years 21,885⅓ cwt. From St. Petersburgh, which is the principal market, the following quantities were shipped during the seven years from 1833 to 1839, viz:

In	1833	1834	1835	1836	1837	1838	1839	*Averages.*
Okatka–cwt.	2222	913	1926	2193	1703	2124	2315	1913¾
1st sort, "	10412	6487	5873	6737	6302	8233	9015	7579¾
Dried, "	3919	3315	3437	4115	3833	6335	6281	4462¼
2d sort, "	3844	3304	3415	3865	3675	6609	7156	4552¼
Total, cwt.	20397	14019	14651	16910	15513	23301	24767	18508¾

The different descriptions of bristles which compose the supplies are either distinguished by the country or place they come from, as the Siberian and Velikaluga bristles, or by the names of the dealers that prepare and bring them forward, as Mesdrikoff's, Pockomoff's, Tapitzin's, Moscatinoff's, Sushkin's, Kuffshinnikoff's, M. Malkoff's, S. Malchoff's, Solotareff's, Yershoff's, Faleyeff's, Lashenkoff's bristles. The supplies from the interior arrive at St. Petersburgh at all times of the year, chiefly, however, between January and July. This article is never purchased on contract, the dealers selling their parcels for cash as they arrive at market and buyers offer, delivering them immediately into possession of the latter, who take them to their private warehouses till shipment. During winter, while the navigation is closed, the prices generally are cheapest, the number of buyers being then confined to a few of the principal exporters that receive considerable early orders. A season seldom passes over without considerable fluctuations occurring in the cost of this article. We are enabled to give the following report on the course of this trade in 1839, which season we consider to have been the more interesting, as its supply not only proved greater than was expected, but even exceeded all preceding years in quantity, an unusually great number of swine having been killed in consequence of the dearth of provender in the interior of the country.

Report of the trade in bristles at St. Petersburgh in 1839.—The demand began very early, timely shipment being favored by the number of ships that wintered at Cronstadt. Considerable transactions took place as early as January and February, and up to 1st May about 8,500 cwt. had already been braacked. The demand continued steady during summer for all sorts except 1st, of which, however, very considerable purchases were made towards the close of the navigation, when reduced prices were submitted to by the dealers, after they had become aware of the unusual extent of the aggregate supply. *Okatka.*—The price for sorted Moscatinoff's, Sushkin's, Pockomoff's, and Malkoff's opened at Ro. 48¼, then advanced to Ro. 51¾ to 52¼, and at last came down again to Ro. 50; Kuffshinnikoffs, Faleyeff's, and other inferior sorts fetched Ro. 1¾ to 2¼ less; Solotareff's and Yaroslaff's went off at Ro. 45¼ to 47¼. Grays advanced from Ro. 41¾ to Ro. 42¾ to 45¼, and re-declined in autumn to Ro. 41¾. Black and yellow of good quality were much inquired for, the former at Ro. 48¼, the latter at Ro. 45¼ to 47¼. Velikalugas fetched Ro. 42¾ in the fore part of the season, latterly only Ro. 40. *First sorts.*—In January and February the prices were for Mesdrikoff's, Ro. 36¾ to 37¼; Yershoff's, Ro. 35¼; Pockomoff's, Ro. 34¾; Moscatinoff's, Sushkin's, and Kuffshinnikoff's, Ro. 32¾; Malkoff's, Ro. 32¼; Velikalugas, Ro. 30 to 30¾, at which rates the demand was steady till the month of May; in June the inquiry slackened, and Moscatinoff's and others were bought at Ro. 32, with Ro. 31¾ for Malchoff's; in July the latter fetched only Ro. 30. In

August a great deal was done in Mesdrikoff's at Ro. 35⅜ to 35½; Sushkin's at Ro. 30 to Ro. 30¼; Tapitzin's, Ro. 30¼ to 30; Malkoff's, Ro. 30 to 29½; Velikalugas, Ro. 28½ to Ro. 28¾. In October about 120 casks were sold as follows: Pochomoff's, Ro. 32 to 31⅓; Yershoff's, Ro. 30; Tapitzin's, Ro. 29⅜ to 28½; Moscatinoff's, Kuffshinnikoff's, M. Faleyeff's, at Ro. 28½; Malkoff's, Ro. 28½ to 28; Velikalugas, Ro. 28, and towards the very close a few casks Moscatinoff's at Ro. 27½; Malkoff's at Ro. 26¾ to 25½; Velikalugas at Ro. 25½ to 25½; Long cut firsts were long supported at Ro. 27⅝ to 27½; short cut with roots, at Ro. 24¾ to 22½; short cut, Ro. 18¾ to 18½. *Dried* remained very firm at Ro. 24¾ to 23¾ for Pochomoff's; Ro. 21¾ to 20½ for Mesdrikoff's and Yershoff's; Ro. 17½ to 16¾ for Faleyeff's; Ro. 15½ to 14¾ for Velikalugas; Ro. 15½ for Malkoff's; Ro. 14¾ to 14½ for Tapitzin's; Ro. 14¾ to 14¾ for Kuffshinnikoff's, and Ro. 14¾ for Moscatinoff's and Sushkin's. Towards the close Ro. 1 less was accepted for the last named descriptions. For *second sorts*, there was a constant demand at Ro. 13½ to 12½ for Pochomoff's; Ro. 13½ to 12 for Mesdrikoff's; Ro. 11½, 10½ to 10 for Yershoff's; Ro. 8½ for Malkoff's; Ro. 8 to 7½ for Faleyeff's; Ro. 7½ to 6¾ for Solotareff's; Ro. 6¾ to 6 for Tapitzin's, and Ro. 6¼ to 5¼ for Sushkin's and Moscatinoff's. *Siberian bristles* went off at Ro. 52¾ to 57½ for Okatka; Ro. 34¾ to 36 for first sort; Ro. 20 to 21½ for dried, and Ro. 10 to 10¾ for second sort.

Calculation of first sort bristles imported from St. Petersburgh into London, viz:

1 cwt. or 3½ poods of first sort Sushkin's, bought in May, at Ro. 30 per pood, and drawn for at an exchange of 40d. per Ro., at 3 months date, stands in free on board . .				£16	9 11
With insurance on £17 at 1 per cent . .	£0	3	5		
Sound dues 10d., freight 3s., duty £1 12s. 8d., landing, &c., 10d.	1	17	4		
				2	0 9
Cost from the London scale, . .				£18	10 8
Discount on £20 for 4 months, at 1⅓ per cent .	£0	6	8		
Brokerage do. ⅓ do.	0	2	0		
Commission do. 2 do. .	0	8	0		
				0	16 8
Cost for sale to clear a commission, . .				£19	7 4

Linseed.—This grain forms a most important article of export from Russia. In 1838, the quantity reached 688,575 imperial quarters; namely, from Odessa 99,037 qrs.; from Taganrog 9,898 qrs.; from other southern ports 55,603 qrs.; by the western continental frontier 26,268 qrs.; from Archangel 74,698 qrs.; from St. Petersburgh 196,346 qrs.; from Riga, 202,650 qrs.; and from Libau, Windau, Pernau, and Reval, 24,075 qrs. Of the whole, 261,814 qrs. went to Great Britain and Ireland, and 427,061 qrs. to the continent of Europe. In 1838 the quantity exceeded that of any preceding year, but the yield of the crops of this article is very variable, and no previous estimate can in any year be formed of the probable maximum of the supply, while perhaps the minimum may now be assumed at about 400,000 quarters.

The chief general distinctions of linseed, made in trade, are those of sowing and of crushing linseed. The former is understood to be a select article shipped from Riga, Windau, Libau, and Pernau, in casks with official marks, warranting the seed to be fresh and fit for sowing; the latter is of various quality, intended to be used and fit for crushing only, and shipped from all ports of Russia, either in bulk, or in mat bags, called "Kools."

At St. Petersburgh but a small part of the annual supply, derived from the nearer flax districts, arrives and is ready for shipment in May, June, and the fore part of July; for the principal part reaches that market from the middle of July till the end of September, and comprises what is called the Morshansk and Saratoff linseed, and uses to be of a quality superior to the earlier arrivals. The shipment is made chiefly in the mat bags, above alluded to, which are not paid for separately. The article sells there by the "chetvert" measure, forming the contents of a kool. Ten chetverts are found to measure out in England 7, and sometimes even $7\frac{1}{10}$ imperial quarters from the ship's side.

Contract purchases for forward delivery are made in autumn, winter, and spring, either with the whole price agreed for, or part thereof, most frequently 25 to 50 per cent paid down cash in advance, at once or by instalments, the remainder being payable on delivery. Sales with only 10 per cent in advance are less customary for this article.

The intercourse of the United States with Russia, both commercial and maritime, is founded on treaty regulations of perfect equality in the direct and indirect trade. The new Russian tariff went into operation January 11th, 1842; (a list of the duties on most of the principal articles, will be found in the Merchants' Magazine for July, 1842.) Duties on manufactured goods are materially increased by the new tariff. Many articles, however, formerly prohibited are now admitted on payment of very high duties; and the duties on the great body of articles previously admitted, have been all more or less increased. The duty on cotton, for the benefit of the quarantine establishment, is eighty copecks, in bank notes, per pood, (thirty-six pounds avoirdupois,) which is about eleven cents and 60-100ths, as per value of the silver rouble. The quarantine and additional duties remain as before, it being ordained that there shall be paid on all merchandise imported, an additional duty of one eighth per cent; that is to say, twelve and a half per cent on the duties of the tariff, which is thus collected. To the duty of the tariff is added the duty of the quarantine, and to this the one eighth per cent. There are also still other charges for the use of cellars and stores of entrepôt for merchandise. From consular despatches received at the department of state at Washington, it appears that the trade of the United States has materially diminished during the past few years. It is ascribed in part to the distress which has prevailed in the interior of the country, occasioned by the failure of the corn crops for the years 1839 and 1840, and the exclusion of the capital of the United States from the Russian trade; most of the cargoes of sugars imported into St. Petersburgh, in American vessels, having been in freight per foreign account. To this may be added the high price of Russian produce, and the little demand for it of late in the United States.

It appears from official documents that the quantity of cotton imported into Russia from the United States in 1838, was 2,778,472 lbs., 1839, 2,104,482 lbs., in 1840, 2,203,017 lbs.

Art. II.—THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM.

However slow has been the progress of political reforms, in the different nations of the earth, commercial ameliorations have marched with a much slower pace, and have been subject to greater fluctuations. The commercial regulations, however salutary in any particular country, and at any particular period of time, have too seldom afforded examples for the adoption of the nations and times that may succeed them.

And even when sound and enlightened principles are brought to bear upon and control commercial affairs, the circumstance gives no guarantee of their perpetuity. They may expire with the government which established them; and although another nation, with more favorable institutions in other respects, may succeed, yet the same commercial policy may not be revived.

Although free institutions have always (and truly so) been considered favorable to the growth and extension of commercial enterprise, yet it is not enough for commerce and its highest degree of prosperity, that the people who cherish it are free. To give to it its greatest efficiency and usefulness, requires that its affairs shall be regulated by wise and judicious laws. Commerce, it is true, flourishes the best where least subjected to restrictive laws, and embarrassing taxes, and vexatious regulations of all kinds.

From the cheapness and facility of collection, the most powerful nations of the present day raise their principal subsidies by the imposition of duties on commercial imports, and, in some instances, on exports also. The experience of modern commercial nations unite in favor of realizing sufficient duties on the importation of goods, in a great measure, to defray the expenses of government. But while they unite on this one point of the subject, there is no question in the whole circle of political economy that has so divided mankind, or has been, in its discussion and management, productive of greater evil.

The whole question resolves itself into that of taxation, and the best mode of collection, whenever taxes are levied to support an economical administration of government. No one can complain, provided they can be made to bear equally on all classes and conditions of men. Taxation being necessary, it becomes a matter of serious consideration to fix the amount and mode of gathering it. We shall not stop to argue with that class of political economists, in this or other countries, who contend for the highest possible rate of taxation, for the purpose of securing a bounty to any manufacturing or other interest. Or with others, who prefer and advocate the raising of revenue by direct taxation, as being more equal, as every one would pay according to his wealth, and not according to what he might happen to comsume. We shall proceed to take for granted, that the cheapest, if not the best mode of raising a legitimate revenue, is by the taxation of commerce, or imposition of impost duties. And this being conceded, it is matter of great importance that this should be done by a method attended with as little burden and inconvenience to the merchant as the higher interest of the national treasury will permit: or, in other words, that the merchant should enjoy as much freedom and as great facilities in his commercial pursuits as the legal demands of his government will justify. One of these important and desirable privileges can only be secured

to him by the "WAREHOUSING SYSTEM," which has been so long and so beneficially introduced into England. And considering our usual eagerness to introduce valuable improvements from the old world into our own country, it really appears wonderful that we should have so long, and so much to the serious damage of commerce, and the inconvenience and hardships of our merchants, remained without adopting it.

As one striking proof of the difficulty of effecting important commercial reforms, we may instance the long struggles the "*Warehousing System*" had to endure before it was fully adopted in England, where it now stands as one of the brightest and wisest monuments of her commercial regulations.

The great disadvantages of drawbacks did not attract public attention in England till the year 1733, when *Sir Robert Walpole* was the first to propose it in his famous *excise scheme*, which was to compel importers of wine and tobacco to deposit them in public warehouses, relieving them, however, from the necessity of paying duties till they were withdrawn, either for consumption or export. Thus leaving the money in the merchant's pocket that he might otherwise have been required to deposit with the government, to be again restored to him in case he re-exported the goods: on which sum the merchant would lose the interest and use of principal, while the government would not be a gainer by holding it. By the old plan, the merchant would be required to pay the duty on the whole amount of goods at the time of entry; whereas by depositing them in a government warehouse, he would only pay the duties on such portions as he could sell, and would from time to time remove from the public warehouse. And thus, in many instances, his sales and profits might be such on the first parcels removed as to place him in funds to discharge the remainder, as he might have use for them; while the government would be amply secured by the possession of the goods thus deposited, and be paid in addition thereto all expenses for the stowage of the same.

It seems very strange, at this period of time, that a measure so full of wisdom and usefulness should have met with the extraordinary opposition it did, when first proposed by the celebrated English minister, *Sir Robert Walpole*. So powerful was the delusion of the public mind on the subject, that it was well-nigh causing a rebellion. It is said that "most of the merchants of the day had availed themselves of the facilities which the existing system afforded of defrauding the revenue; and they dexterously endeavored to thwart the success of a scheme which would have given a serious check to such practices, by making the public believe that it would be fatal to the prosperity of the country. The efforts of the merchants were powerfully seconded by the spirit of party, which then ran very high. The political opponents of the ministry, anxious for an opportunity to prejudice them in public estimation, contended that the scheme was only the first step towards the introduction of such a universal system of excise, that would inevitably prove alike subversive of the comfort and liberty of the people. In consequence of these artful misrepresentations, the most violent clamors were everywhere excited against the scheme. On one occasion Sir Robert Walpole narrowly escaped falling a sacrifice to the ungovernable fury of the mob, which possessed all the avenues to the House of Commons; and after many violent and lengthy debates the scheme was ultimately abandoned.

The disadvantages of the old plan, and the benefits to be derived from a

voluntary warehousing system, were most ably pointed out by Dean Tucker, in his "Essay on the comparative advantages and disadvantages of Great Britain and France, with respect to trade," published in 1750. But so powerful was the impression made by the violent opposition to Sir Robert Walpole's scheme, and such the force of prejudice, that it was not till 1803 that this obvious and signal improvement, the greatest perhaps that has ever been made in the commercial system of England, was fully adopted. And notwithstanding the success and great convenience the scheme has produced to the government and merchants of Great Britain, and its decided utility and popularity for a period of near half a century; the United States, in general so ready to adopt useful laws, and support and encourage by all proper means the advancement of commerce, have yet remained indifferent to a scheme which holds out so many advantages to trade. We are not aware that any serious effort has ever been made by Congress to introduce this valuable system into America; a system, so apparently and obviously beneficial.

In adopting the system, it would be a very easy matter for Congress to direct the erection of *public fire-proof warehouses* in the principal importing cities in the United States; into which all articles imported should be carefully stored, and entered at the customhouse, and the duties assessed, only to be collected when the goods were withdrawn for consumption, or for re-exportation. In all cases the charges for stowage to be paid at the time of the removal of the goods, whether for home use or re-shipment. In this way all expenses attending the public stowage of the goods would be more than reimbursed, and in all probability sufficient realized in the end to pay for the orignal cost of the buildings, and leave the government in the receipt of a revenue.

This scheme would greatly benefit the merchant or tax payer, as it would enable him to pay his duties at a time and in a method the least burdensome. While the government, by retaining the absolute custody of the goods till all arrears were settled, would be amply secured against all possibility of loss.

The foundation of the English act establishing the *warehousing system*, was prescribed in the statute, 43 of George III., c. 132. But the system was much improved and extended by subsequent statutes, and which have been embodied in the act 3, of William IV., c. 57, which took effect 1st September, 1833.

"The act empowers the commissioners of the customs, under the authority and direction of the lords of the treasury, to nominate the ports at which the goods may be warehoused without payment of duty, and the warehouses in which particular descriptions of goods may be deposited. It also affixes the time goods may be allowed to remain in the warehouse, and prescribes the regulations as to their removal from port to port, their sale and stowage in the warehouse, the remission of duties in case of loss by accident, the allowance of waste, &c." The act is a very long one and full of details, and those who would be pleased to examine more fully its provisions, will find an abstract of the act in *McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary*, page 1219. The whole execution of the regulations contained in the statute, rests in the hands of commissioners of customs, or in their stead, the commissioners of the treasury, and relate to the appointment of warehouse ports, and of warehouses of special security, that are so well built as for the government to guaranty the merchant against loss by fire,

robbery, &c. To the providing warehouses for tobacco. Such to be built at government expense, at such ports into which the article may be legally imported; providing for the rent to be paid on the stowage of each hogshead; continues in force warehouses appointed previous to the enactment of the present statute; confers power to revoke or alter the appointment of a warehouse; to publish all appointments in the gazettes. Warehouse keeper may give general bond; sales of goods in warehouse by proprietor to be valid; stowage in warehouses to be easy of access; goods fraudulently concealed or removed, to be forfeited. Examination on entry and landing to be provided for; goods to be carried to the warehouse under the authority of officers of customs. Goods to be cleared in three years, and ships' stores in one year—in default of which they are to be sold, and all arrearages due government paid from the proceeds, and the surplus to be paid to the proprietor of the goods. A further time of three months after sale to be allowed to the owner to clear the goods; and if not done within that time, they are forfeited. Another clause prescribes the mode of entry for exportation or for home use. Rum for stores, or for surplus stores, may be shipped without entry. Duties to be paid on original quantities, except in certain cases. Duties also to be paid on tobacco, spirits, and sugar, charged on quantities delivered, except in certain cases, excepting spirits other than rum from British plantations; and for which a scale of allowance is given, both as to time and loss, except by leakage or accident, which is otherwise provided for. Goods may be removed to other ports to be warehoused. Importers may enter goods for home use, although not actually warehoused. Prescribes the mode of entering goods for removal; bond to re-warehouse, which may be given at either port; bond how to be discharged. Goods re-warehoused held on the terms of the first warehousing; on arrival after re-warehousing, parties may enter to export, &c.; removal in the same port; done by permission of the commissioners of customs, and to any other warehouse in the said port, in which the like goods may be warehoused. Goods and parties subject to the original conditions. Bond of remover to be in force until a bond be given by a new owner. Prescribes the mode of assorting, separating into some, or equal packages. No alterations to be made in goods or packages, except by the commissioners' direction. Form of repacking in proper packages; no foreign cask, &c., to be used for repacking, except those in which the goods have arrived, to be used by government for repacking. Silks, linens, &c. to be delivered out of warehouse to be cleaned; the commissioners to allow of the temporary removal of such for the purpose of their being cleansed. Copper ore may be taken out of warehouse to be smelted. Goods in bulk, of less than one ton weight, not to be received in warehouse, unless by permission of commissioners. All packages to be marked before delivery in a proper manner to distinguish them. Decrease and increase may be allowed, under regulations of the treasurer, under whose direction all deficiency or loss in weight, &c., is to be governed and decided upon. Regulates also the waste in wine and spirits in warehouses not of special security; which is about 1 per cent for any length of time not exceeding one year. Embezzlement and waste by officers to be made good to proprietors. On entry outwards, bond for shipping and landing shall be given. Restriction as to the Isle of Man. Goods removed from warehouse under the care of customs' officers. Bond for beef and pork exported from warehouses, amply provided for the ship-

ping of, beyond sea, &c.; ships not to be less than 70 tons for the exportation of warehouse goods. Goods landed in docks liable to freight, as before landing.

We have thus briefly given the captions, or principal heads of the celebrated and exceedingly well-digested and beneficial statute of 3d William IV., c. 57. From which it will readily be perceived its provisions are of great importance. Although it contains many clauses which would be irrelevant to the circumstances of the United States, yet it cannot be denied that all the essential principles of the statute might, if drawn up in a proper form, serve as a basis of a law for the establishment of a similar system in this country, and which is so much needed both by our merchants and government, and could not fail to be productive of the most beneficial consequences to our extensive and growing commercial interests.

The English act or statute, in addition to the points mentioned, also nominates certain towns, alone as warehousing ports; nor does it permit all sorts of goods to be warehoused in every warehousing port. Of these, 44 towns or ports are designated in England, to which is appended a list of goods that may be warehoused at each. And in Scotland 10 such ports are named; and in Ireland 13 such ports exist. In Scotland some few ports are allowed to warehouse East India goods, and some of them to receive sugar. But no tobacco, besides many other articles, is allowed to be warehoused in Scotland. In Ireland neither tobacco or East India goods are permitted to be stowed in any public warehouse in that country, besides many other articles. These distinctions in favor of certain ports in Great Britain over others, of course should not and would not exist in the United States.

Art. III.—TRADE OF FRANCE.

The progress of France in manufactures and commerce has been exceedingly rapid within the last twelve or thirteen years. After the restoration of peace in 1816, the vast energies of that wonderful people, after having carried military glory to its height, took a new direction in the development of the national wealth. This process has been favored by twenty-seven years of universal peace, and the movement of France in manufacturing prosperity has been almost without parallel. Of her vast trade but little has hitherto been known in this country. The French government have however prepared in the most admirable manner the statistics of the trade of the country, so minute and comprehensive as to give a better idea of national prosperity than has been done in any other country.*

* We would take this opportunity to acknowledge our indebtedness to Monsieur Alexander Guillaum, one of the commissioners of commerce and agriculture, who came out in the French steamship Gomer, for a copy of the document issued by the administration of the customs, entitled Analytical Tables of the Commerce of France, for the year 1840, (just published by the French government,) with comparative decennial tables, from which the statistical tables embraced in this paper are mainly compiled.

The foreign commerce of France, for the year 1840, exhibits a great improvement. The total of the imports and exports reached the enormous sum of f.2,063,000,000, or $386,812,500—a sum larger than ever before attained. The greatest improvement has however been observable in the importations, which never before reached f.1,000,000,000, but in 1840 they have exceeded that sum by f.52,000,000. The general commerce of exportation for 1840, as compared with the year 1839, showed an improvement of 1 per cent only, but as compared with the average of the few preceding years, gives an improvement of 12 per cent.

The following is a table of the aggregate imports and exports of France for 15 years, with the average of each five years.

General commerce of France.

SUM OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

1826	1,126,000,000	1831	1,131,000,000	1836	1,867,000,000
1827	1,168,000,000	1832	1,369,000,000	1837	1,566,000,000
1828	1,218,000,000	1833	1,459,000,000	1838	1,893,000,000
1829	1,224,000,000	1834	1,435,000,000	1839	1,950,000,000
1830	1,211,000,000	1835	1,595,000,000	1840	2,063,000,000
	f.5,947,000,000		f.6,969,000,000		f.9,339,000,000
Aver.—	f.1,189,400,000		f.1,393,800,000		f.1,867,800,000
	$223,017,000		$261,337,500		$350,212,500

The special commerce of France, that is to say, the trade in those articles which, imported, are for consumption in French territory, or exported, are of the produce of French industry, has been estimated at f.1,442,000,000, out of the whole total of f.2,063,000,000; or expressed in dollars, the special commerce amounted to $270,375,000, and the grand total, as above, $386,812,500.

The special imports were . . . f.747,000,000, or $140,062,500
The " exports " . . . 695,000,000, or 130,274,500

The increase of the special commerce has been greater in proportion than that of the general commerce; that is to say, in 1835 the special commerce was 68 per cent of the whole amount, and in 1840 it was 70 per cent of the whole sum. The general commerce of France is divided into two heads, viz: commerce by land and commerce by sea. These have been as follows:

Commerce by sea	f.1,481,000,000,	or 71.8 per cent.
Do. by land	582,000,000,	or 28.2 "
Total,	f.2,063,000,000	100.

The commerce by land is that carried on with the adjacent European countries, and is largely comprised of the transit trade. The proportion of this trade with each country is seen in the following table.

French commerce by land—1840.

Country.	*Am't in francs.*	*Dollars.*	*Proportion.*
Switzerland,	161,000,000	30,187,500	27.
Belgium,	125,000,000	23,437,500	22.
Sardinian States,	105,000,000	19,837,500	18.
Germany,	98,000,000	18,375,000	17.
Spain,	72,000,000	13,500,000	12.
Prussia,	18,000,000	3,375,000	3.
Holland,	3,000,000	987,500	1.
	f.582,000,000	$109,700,000	100

The navigation by sea was divided as follows:

French navigation	f.705,000,000,	or	48 per cent.
Foreign "	776,000,000,	or	52 "

The commerce by sea has been divided into the following general heads:

Commerce with the countries of Europe,	f.757,000,000,	or	51 per cent.
Do. do. do. out of "	582,000,000,	or	39 "
Colonies and fisheries, ...	142,000,000,	or	10 "
	f.1,481,000,000		100

The following table will show the comparative French and foreign tonnage employed under each of these heads.

Tonnage engaged in the commerce of France for a series of years.

	Total tonnage.	*Fr'ch colonies and Indies.*	*Fish'ry.*	*French tonnage*		*Foreign tonnage*	
				in Europe	*out of do.*	*in Europe*	*out of do.*
1835	2,180,000	222,000	134,000	344,000	229,000	1,010,000	241,000
1836	2,491,000	215,000	124,000	427,000	269,000	1,200,000	260,000
1837	2,607,000	199,000	157,000	493,000	278,000	1,242,000	238,000
1838	2,853,000	207,000	150,000	620,000	250,000	1,360,000	266,000
1839	2,930,000	193,000	140,000	760,000	250,000	1,364,000	223,000
Average,	2,613,000	207,000	141,000	529,000	255,000	1,235,000	246,000
1840	2,896,000	173,000	130,000	629,000	279,000	1,331,000	354,000

This table presents the fact that the proportion of French tonnage employed in fisheries and the colonial trade, has diminished about 15 per cent in 1840, as compared with 1835. In the navigation of Europe, however, the year 1840 compared with 1835 shows an improvement of 83 per cent in favor of the French flag, and of 32 per cent for the foreign tonnage. In the trade with countries out of Europe, the French tonnage increased 22 per cent, and foreign tonnage 47 per cent. The aggregate trade gives an increase of 59 per cent for the flag of France, and 35 per cent for that of other countries. The following is a table showing the proportion the French tonnage has borne to the whole trade of each country as compared with the flag of that country. For instance, the trade with England is considered as 100: of this the French tonnage employed has been 28 per cent, English tonnage 71 per cent, and the tonnage of other countries 1 per cent: total 100.

Proportion of French and foreign tonnage engaged in the trade with each power, in 1840.

COUNTRIES OF EUROPE.

	French tonnage.	*Tons of the c'ntry.*	*Other c'ntries.*		*French tonnage.*	*Tons of the c'ntry.*	*Other c'ntries.*
England,	28	71	1	Turkey,	73	1	26
Spain,	49	44	7	Hanse Towns,	48	18	34
Norway,	1	95	4	Tuscany,	50	16	34
Sardinia,	71	26	3	Prussia,	5	64	31
Russia,	18	23	59	Austria,	13	63	24
Two Sicilies,	27	56	17	Holland,	51	44	5

COUNTRIES OF EUROPE.—*Continued.*

	French tonnage.	*Tons of the c'ntry.*	*Other c'ntries.*		*French tonnage.*	*Tons of the c'ntry.*	*Other c'ntries.*
Sweden,	4	45	51	Portugal,	61	22	17
Roman states,	19	44	37	Greece,	17	79	4
Belgium,	40	16	44	Mecklinburg,	13	78	9
Denmark,	5	44	51				

COUNTRIES OUT OF EUROPE.

	France.	*Of the country.*	*Other flags.*		*France.*	*Of the country.*	*Other flags.*
United States,	14	85	1	St. Thomas,	78	10	12
Algiers,	58	—	62	Chili,	95	5	—
Cuba and P. Rico,	68	26	6	Venezuela,	84	12	4
Brazils,	61	1	38	Dutch E. Indies,	100	—	—
Hayti,	98	2	—	New Grenada,	73	—	27
Uraguay,	80	2	18	Coast of Africa,	83	—	17
Egypt,	65	—	35	Peru,	85	15	—
Eng. E. Indies,	93	7	—	British Guiana,	7	97	—
Barbary States,	61	—	39	China,	100	—	—
Mexico,	98	—	2	Philippine I.	100	—	—
Mauritius,	5	95	—	Rio Plata and Guatimala,	100	—	—

We may now pass to the imports and exports of France with each country for a series of years, comprised in the following table. In relation to imports, it will be observed that the United States occupies the first rank, and the countries are named in the order of their importance to the commerce of France. In 1839, the imports from the Sardinian states were the largest. The imports from the United States in 1840 were, it appears, f.176,000,000, or 17 per cent of the whole imports, whereof f.118,000,000 or 16 per cent was admitted to consumption in France. The year 1840, compared with the average of the previous years, shows an increase in the imports from the United States of 60 per cent in the general commerce, and of 38 per cent in the special commerce. The increase in imports from England, it will be seen, is 80 per cent in the same period. The trade with Belgium has rapidly increased since 1835. These then are the most important countries, the others follow in the order of their importance.

The table of exports shows a most remarkable diminution in the shipments to the United States. From f.239,000,000 in 1836 they fell to f.98,000,000 in 1837, and rose again to f.204,600,000 in 1839, and again fell to f.136,100,000 in 1840. This violent fluctuation affects the general commerce in the same proportion as the special commerce of France, and is indicative that the cause existed in the paper system of the U. States alone. Such extreme fluctuations are exhibited in the trade of no other country. At the same time it is observable that the imports from the U. States steadily increased. The exports to England reached f.160,000,000, of which f.105,000,000 was of French production. The total shows a slight decrease from 1839. To Spain the increase has been great, reaching f.104,700,000, of which f.79,000,000 was French production. The tables follow, commencing with the imports into France.

IMPORTS OF FRANCE FROM EACH COUNTRY—GENERAL COMMERCE.

	1825. *Francs.*	1826. *Francs.*	1827. *Francs.*	1828. *Francs.*	1829. *Francs.*	1840. *Francs.*
United States	89,500,000	110,800,000	117,700,000	132,800,000	99,200,000	175,800,000
England	61,300	68,200	75,700	95,000	95,300	109,700
Sardinia	98,900	101,100	85,400	111,800	106,100	107,900
Belgium	71,900	84,000	85,700	93,100	82,900	85,300
Switzerland	59,300	83,000	54,800	67,000	74,000	70,100
Germany	57,500	70,000	44,000	54,500	50,300	54,100
Spain	38,700	44,400	36,000	35 500	37,400	42,700
Russia	31,300	27,800	23,300	32,300	38,900	34,000
English E. Indies	26,300	28,900	25,300	18,100	30,400	33,800
Holland	6,900	8,300	12,300	21,000	28,500	28,900
Turkey	20,500	19,700	21,200	27,300	40,000	26,200
Two Sicilies	13,200	24,900	19,000	22,500	21,400	22,800
Tuscany	8,700	18,100	15,000	16,800	20,900	22,800
Guadaloupe	23,700	23,700	17,200	21,500	25,300	20,300
Prussia	23,100	29.300	18,400	21,000	18,400	19,300
Hanse Towns	10,700	17,000	10,400	9,900	10,300	17,100
Spanish America	7,500	10,000	9,800	11,500	12,000	16,900
Austria	1,800	3,100	6,000	5,200	9,100	16,900
Bourbon	18,400	16,200	15,500	21,200	21,200	16,500
Martinique	16,300	15,400	13,400	17,100	17,300	15,400
Saint Pierre	7,100	7,500	11,600	12,200	13,700	13,500
Norway	11,000	11,200	11,700	11,000	13,100	12,400
Brazil	8,000	10,000	10,800	9,500	8,300	9,800
Mexico	7,100	8,700	7,100	4,400	4,600	7,400
Hayti	5,900	5,000	6,300	7,300	3,900	7,000
Barbary	8,300	7,700	4,300	6,000	5,000	7,000
Rio Plata	5,400	5,000	5,400	6,400	5,800	6,600
Dutch E. Indies	2,700	5,600	8,400	6,200	6,200	5,000
Venezuela	3,300	4,500	5,200	3,300	4,600	5,000
Sweden	5,100	4,500	4,100	5,100	4,600	4,500
Other countries	91,000	32,000	25,700	36,600	33,600	37,600
Total Francs	760,700,000	905,600,000	807,800,000	937,100,000	947,000,000	1,052,300,000
" Dollars	138,881,250	169,800,000	151,462,500	175,706,250	177,562,500	197,306,250

EXPORTS OF FRANCE—GENERAL COMMERCE.—SAME YEARS.

	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
England	99,600,000	115,200,000	95,200,000	140,100,000	162,900,000	160,200,000
United States	196,000	238,900	98,600	170,700	204,600	136,100
Spain	82,100	93,200	70,200	75,800	82,700	104,700
Switzerland	73,500	76,500	77,400	86,100	80,300	90,800
Sardinia	44,000	54,100	56,500	59,500	61,800	66,100
Belgium	43,800	45,800	47,400	55,200	47,000	51,900
Germany	36,000	39,800	36,000	44,900	41,800	44,200
Algiers	11.000	13,900	17,600	25,300	25,900	31,700
Brazil	22,700	25,200	21,400	23,000	22,400	29,800
Hanse Towns	16,200	20,700	19,900	20,900	21,700	24,100
Low Countries	19,300	15,300	17,800	21,900	18,600	21,500
Martinique	16,700	15,600	17,300	15,600	16,500	20,900
Tuscany	9,400	16,800	14,100	20,700	19,500	20,700
Russia	11,500	11,700	13,600	13,500	15,800	18,200
Spanish America	9,400	14,900	13,400	15,100	16,300	17,100
Guadaloupe	16,500	20,200	17,600	15,200	14,700	16,800
Chili	6,900	13,100	6,300	7,700	11,000	15,000
Mexico	17,300	9,500	9,600	8,100	11,300	14,000
Turkey	15,300	17,300	10,800	16,400	12,600	13,300
Two Sicilies	5,000	13,500	11,600	13,600	13,000	10,900
Bourbon	7,900	7,600	10,900	13.700	11,700	10,100
Prussia	9,600	8,300	7,100	9,000	8,000	9,500
Austria	6,800	9,900	5,300	10,300	2,800	9,100
Hayti	5,700	4,600	3,800	5,100	8,300	8,200
Senegal	4,600	6,100	8,000	11,800	8,600	7,500
Rio Plata	4,500	5,800	6,100	5,000	4,800	6,900
Danish America	3,400	3,700	4,700	3,800	5,800	5,600
Saint Pierre	5,000	5,400	4,800	5,700	5,800	5,500
Cape Good Hope	3,500	4,100	4,200	6,800	4,800	5,500
English India	4,600	6,000	4,000	2,700	5,700	4,900
Other countries	25,400	28,700	27,000	32,900	40,600	30,200
Total Francs	834,400,000	961,300,000	758,100,000	955,900,000	1,003,300000	1,010,900,000
" Dollars	156,450,000	180,243,750	142,143,750	179,231,250	188,118,750	189,543,750

We may now pass to the consideration of the imports and exports of the different articles which enter into the commerce of France. These imports are officially divided into articles "necessary to industry," such as raw materials, &c., "natural objects of consumption," as sugar, fish, flour, &c., and "manufactured objects of consumption," as clothes, shoes, &c. The amounts of imports and exports are given at the "official value," which are averages resulting from an inquiry which was approved 29th May, 1826. These values have since then been attached to merchandise entered and cleared. This was done to facilitate the comparison of one year with another, because if the fluctuations in the value of each was given, the comparison of one year with another would not, it was thought, give any satisfactory results. The proportion which these different classifications of imports bear to each other is seen in the following resume:—

	General Commerce.	*Special Commerce.*
Articles necessary to industry,	62 per cent.	67 per cent.
National articles of consumption,	23 "	27 "
Manufactured,	15 "	6 "
	100	100

The difference which exists between the special and general commerce constitutes, for the most part, the transit trade of France, of which the statistics are here subsequently given. This trade has mostly developed itself since 1832. From that time to 1836 it increased in a much greater degree than did the exclusive commerce of France; having risen from f.150,000,000 to f.340,000,000. Since that year it does not appear to have much advanced beyond that general improvement which has marked the aggregate trade. From the year 1832 to 1836 the increase in the transit trade by value was 24 per cent, and by weight 41 per cent, showing some falling off in relative values. This trade of France is one of vast and increasing importance, but will probably be checked in coming years by that radical change in the currency of the United States and England, the great nations for the sale of the products of the interior of France, which appears now to be going on. The exports from the United States across France to the interior of Europe appear to consist mostly of that description classed as "necessary to industry," or the raw material of manufactures, which, as seen above, have borne a higher proportion in the special trade than in the general commerce. This undoubtedly has marked the progress of manufacturing prosperity in those interior countries of Europe where low duties and a steady currency have given every advantage to the producers of those manufactured goods, the ready sale of which has been greatly facilitated in those countries, as England and the U. States, where a season of prosperity induced that exuberance of paper credits, which, by raising prices, gave a margin to importers. The paper credits which raised prices, were also the means of promoting the consumption of European goods faster than it developed the resources of the consuming country to pay for them. Those credits are now powerfully contracted, and will prevent so large a consumption of foreign goods for the future; but they may have increased the powers of Europe to consume their own manufactures. Hence no falling off in that prosperity may be felt, although the increase hereafter will not be so rapid.

We may now proceed with the tables of imports and exports, commencing with the general commerce.

IMPORTS INTO FRANCE.—GENERAL COMMERCE.

ARTICLES.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
Cotton,	62,800,000	54,400,000	63,700,000	72,200,000	48,200,000	68,400,000	77,800,000	75,800,000	84,700,000	103,200,000	96,800,000	111,800,000	90,500,000	151,200,000
Silk, Raw,	68,700,000	68,700,000	69,600,000	67,500,000	66,500,000	62,400,000	88,500,000	81,500,000	80,700,000	80,400,000	80,600,000	106,900,000	85,300,000	93,900,000
Sugar, Fr'nch col.	40,200,000	48,200,000	49,900,000	48,900,000	54,400,000	48,100,000	47,300,000	51,700,000	52,600,000	49,400,000	41,700,000	55,000,000	54,800,000	47,300,000
Grain,	2,900,000	28,000,000	40,400,000	46,300,000	39,900,000	94,700,000	4,500,000	3,700,000	3,700,000	32,000,000	15,800,000	16,000,000	47,000,000	54,500,000
Silk Goods,	9,500,000	10,300,000	11,400,000	13,600,000	19,900,000	15,600,000	25,200,000	29,200,000	42,000,000	55,100,000	27,800,000	42,300,000	52,200,000	42,300,000
Fruits,	15,700,000	8,700,000	4,100,000	12,100,000	2,700,000	7,600,000	16,200,000	5,100,000	8,000,000	24,100,000	18,500,000	21,900,000	21,300,000	37,800,000
Wool,	12,300,000	15,800,000	10,100,000	14,000,000	3,500,000	11,800,000	23,000,000	23,600,000	44,800,000	37,900,000	23,200,000	44,600,000	36,700,000	37,700,000
Wood,	22,200,000	22,100,000	22,100,000	24,000,000	16,800,000	21,500,000	27,500,000	30,600,000	34,200,000	34,400,000	33,400,000	33,400,000	36,400,000	37,100,000
Cotton Goods,	1,300,000	2,200,000	1,900,000	2,800,000	7,200,000	14,300,000	15,600,000	22,200,000	43,300,000	52,100,000	35,100,000	29,700,000	37,200,000	34,700,000
Indigo,	13,600,000	24,600,000	24,700,000	24,800,000	19,300,000	18,300,000	28,800,000	37,900,000	25,500,000	26,300,000	20,600,000	21,900,000	29,900,000	32,600,000
Olive Oil,	25,000,000	41,900,000	27,500,000	36,500,000	26,400,000	28,800,000	42,600,000	33,200,000	31,600,000	27,400,000	27,800,000	27,800,000	29,800,000	31,300,000
Tobacco, Leaf,	15,100,000	11,600,000	13,000,000	10,200,000	3,200,000	8,900,000	9,400,000	9,300,000	7,000,000	13,400,000	16,400,000	20,000,000	17,200,000	30,600,000
Linen Yarn,	8,700,000	9,400,000	4,800,000	7,200,000	4,100,000	5,400,000	10,000,000	9,400,000	9,900,000	12,000,000	14,900,000	21,500,000	27,000,000	28,100,000
Coal,	7,600,000	8,700,000	8,200,000	9,500,000	8,100,000	8,700,000	10,500,000	11,300,000	11,900,000	14,900,000	17,500,000	18,400,000	18,300,000	19,300,000
Copper,	9,100,000	6,900,000	11,000,000	11,900,000	6,300,000	11,300,000	12,700,000	17,800,000	15,200,000	13,800,000	13,100,000	15,100,000	14,000,000	16,300,000
Woollens,	2,800,000	2,100,000	2,100,000	1,100,000	16,200,000	10,600,000	13,600,000	13,200,000	12,900,000	9,700,000	14,600,000	16,000,000	17,000,000	13,000,000
Horses,	4,900,000	4,700,000	4,500,000	6,000,000	8,600,000	2,600,000	2,800,000	2,800,000	3,700,000	5,500,000	6,400,000	7,300,000	7,700,000	11,300,000
Hair,	6,000,000	9,600,000	6,900,000	11,900,000	4,100,000	8,200,000	8,700,000	4,100,000	8,700,000	19,800,000	8,700,000	14,200,000	13,700,000	10,500,000
Lead,	7,000,000	6,200,000	9,200,000	8,800,000	6,600,000	7,100,000	8,000,000	8,300,000	8,400,000	11,100,000	6,900,000	7,500,000	8,400,000	10,000,000
Sugar, Foreign,	7,300,000	5,100,000	6,900,000	5,800,000	5,500,000	1,900,000	3,800,000	6,900,000	6,200,000	6,100,000	6,200,000	7,200,000	4,100,000	9,300,000
Iron,	6,900,000	5,900,000	5,800,000	6,300,000	3,800,000	6,000,000	5,900,000	7,500,000	9,300,000	9,200,000	8,800,000	10,200,000	8,900,000	8,700,000
Dyewoods,	3,600,000	3,800,000	3,900,000	3,600,000	3,500,000	4,800,000	5,000,000	5,700,000	5,900,000	5,600,000	3,600,000	6,100,000	7,700,000	8,400,000
Live Stock,	11,800,000	13,900,000	13,400,000	11,300,000	7,800,000	6,200,000	7,000,000	7,900,000	7,200,000	8,100,000	6,900,000	8,200,000	9,000,000	8,000,000
Fish,	4,700,000	5,900,000	4,500,000	4,600,000	4,600,000	4,000,000	5,000,000	5,000,000	4,900,000	4,100,000	6,200,000	7,600,000	7,500,000	7,200,000
Table Fruits,	4,700,000	5,400,000	4,100,000	4,900,000	4,400,000	4,900,000	5,400,000	5,600,000	4,900,000	5,300,000	5,700,000	6,600,000	6,300,000	6,300,000
Rice,	2,700,000	4,400,000	3,600,000	4,500,000	3,800,000	6,000,000	5,400,000	3,900,000	4,300,000	5,400,000	5,000,000	4,000,000	7,000,000	6,000,000
Hemp,	4,300,000	4,400,000	3,000,000	2,300,000	1,100,000	3,900,000	4,400,000	5,500,000	4,700,000	4,400,000	4,800,000	6,100,000	4,500,000	4,300,000
Ashes,	3,200,000	3,000,000	3,000,000	5,100,000	2,300,000	2,500,000	4,200,000	2,500,000	2,200,000	3,600,000	2,700,000	2,700,000	2,600,000	1,900,000
Raw Hides,	10,500,000	10,000,000	19,600,000	22,500,000	12,100,000	12,400,000	15,100,000	21,900,000	17,400,000	20,600,000	22,500,000	20,400,000	21,900,000	25,400,000
Coffee,	22,500,000	17,000,000	15,800,000	16,400,000	8,900,000	18,500,000	17,800,000	18,900,000	14,700,000	20,100,000	18,700,000	21,600,000	16,500,000	25,400,000
Linen Goods,	24,400,000	25,100,000	24,100,000	30,500,000	17,400,000	19,000,000	20,700,000	20,300,000	23,600,000	29,600,000	26,200,000	29,900,000	26,100,000	24,100,000
Other Articles,	117,800,000	119,700,000	123,000,000	91,200,000	72,600,000	108,500,000	110,900,000	137,700,000	127,500,000	157,400,000	191,300,000	176,200,000	180,500,000	167,900,000
TOTAL, Francs,	505,800,000	607,700,000	616,400,000	638,300,000	512,800,000	652,900,000	693,300,000	729,200,000	760,700,000	902,800,000	807,800,000	937,100,000	947,000,000	1,052,300,000
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
TOTAL, Dollars,	106,087,500	113,943,750	115,575,000	119,681,250	96,150,000	122,418,750	129,993,750	135,037,500	142,631,250	169,275,000	151,462,500	175,706,250	177,562,500	197,306,250

EXPORTS FROM FRANCE.—GENERAL COMMERCE.

ARTICLES.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
Silk Goods,....	118,500,000	116,000,000	115,400,000	116,000,000	142,800,000	127,300,000	161,100,000	143,400,000	186,900,000	206,500,000	121,000,000	176,600,000	203,800,000	192,700,000
Cotton Goods,..	44,000,000	43,600,000	57,100,000	54,000,000	52,800,000	76,800,000	73,500,000	65,300,000	90,500,000	106,000,000	94,100,000	114,000,000	119,800,000	149,200,000
Woollen Go'ds,	25,700,000	25,700,000	30,200,000	26,000,000	31,600,000	45,100,000	52,300,000	53,600,000	51,600,000	65,800,000	59,900,000	79,700,000	77,200,000	73,300,000
Raw Silk,.....	44,100,000	46,400,000	24,400,000	40,000,000	45,100,000	26,700,000	40,600,000	36,000,000	39,800,000	46,700,000	31,400,000	50,600,000	52,100,000	51,200,000
Brandy,.....	22,400,000	33,200,000	26,200,000	15,600,000	12,200,000	21,400,000	21,000,000	14,700,000	15,400,000	16,600,000	18,800,000	17,200,000	16,200,000	16,900,000
Wine,.....	47,600,000	52,500,000	48,200,000	38,100,000	32 300,000	48,300,000	49,400,000	54,100,000	50,800,000	51,900,000	44,000,000	51,900,000	45,600,000	49,700,000
Linen Goods,...	42,800,000	41,000,000	39,700,000	34,900,000	40,500,000	51,000,000	46,600,000	40,200,000	44,800,000	47,900,000	37,700,000	47,200,000	47,600,000	45,600,000
Cotton.....	9,300,000	8,900,000	5,000,000	9,700,000	7,900,000	8,700,000	9,200,000	12,600,000	11,000,000	20,100,000	17,300,000	18,900,000	15,600,000	36,000,000
Toys, &c.....	11,200,000	9,300,000	10,800,000	10,800,000	10,700,000	13,300,000	16,900,000	16,500,000	19,200,000	21,700,000	17,400,000	21,800,000	28,400,000	24,900,000
Paper, &c.....	8,700,000	8,700,000	10,500,000	10,200,000	8,400,000	10,000,000	11,700,000	11,200,000	12,900,000	13,800,000	13,400,000	15,200,000	19,200,000	20,500,000
Grain,.....	9,400,000	4,900,000	4,400,000	4,600,000	8,000,000	10,300,000	7,100,000	7,400,000	28,800,000	27,400,000	14,800,000	21,000,000	33,700,000	19,000,000
Crockery,.....	9,600,000	10,000,000	11,800,000	9,800,000	8,800,000	11,200,000	12 800,000	15,900,000	18,800,000	22,300,000	15,000,000	17,200,000	16,200,000	16,900,000
Leather,.....	11,700,000	10,700,000	13,800,000	13,000,000	13,200,000	15,300,000	18,000,000	15,700,000	19,800,000	21,000,000	14,400,000	19,000,000	20,700,000	16,000,000
Madder,.....	7,300,000	7,600,000	6,100,000	6,200,000	5,800,000	8,800,000	9,100,000	10,500,000	11,100,000	13,500,000	10,600,000	15,700,000	12,900,000	13,700,000
Hors. & Mules,	11,800,000	9,400,000	7,500,000	6,000,000	6,600,000	6,400,000	9,100,000	8,000,000	7,600,000	11,300,000	10,100,000	10,600,000	10,900,000	13,400,000
Linen Clothes,	2,200,000	6,000,000	7,000,000	7,000,000	6,300,000	8,000,000	12,900,000	7,300,000	7,400,000	9,100,000	8,600,000	9,500,000	11,200,000	13,100,000
Refined Sugar,	4,900,000	6,400,000	9,900,000	11,600,000	12,000,000	20,200,000	12,800,000	5,700,000	7,000,000	11,100,000	9,600,000	10,200,000	11,600,000	10,600,000
Coffee,.....	9,500,000	10,100,000	6,700,000	7,500,000	5,100,000	7,100 000	10,700,000	7,700,000	10,800,000	10,300,000	11,200,000	11,100,000	8,500,000	10,400,000
Perfumery,....	4,100,000	4,800,000	5,200,000	4,600,000	4,300,000	6,500,000	7,000,000	6,800,000	8,000,000	7,300,000	6,400,000	5,700,000	7,400,000	8,700,000
T'd. Leath. &c.	5,500,000	5,100,000	4,300,000	4,000,000	4,700,000	5,900,000	5,800,000	5,900,000	6,900,000	7,100,000	7,200,000	8,400,000	8,200,000	8,000,000
Cabinet Wood,	9,600,000	4,000,000	9,500,000	4,300,000	3,600,000	5,000,000	3,300,000	5,200,000	5,500,000	6,400,000	5,900,000	6,600,000	7,300,000	8,000,000
Fruit,.....	4,300,000	3,300,000	3,600,000	2,900,000	3,600,000	2,200,000	4,700,000	3,600,000	4,200,000	4,200,000	3,300,000	5,500,000	7,300,000	7,000,000
Volatile Oil,...	3,500,000	4,600,000	6,300,000	3,800,000	6,900,000	5,200,000	5,900,000	4,300,000	4,300,000	7,400,000	4,200,000	6,900,000	7,500,000	6,900,000
Metal Goods,...	3,900,000	3,200,000	3,700,000	3,000,000	3,500,000	3,300,000	3,600,000	4,300,000	4,700,000	5,400,000	5,000,000	5,300,000	5,400,000	6,900,000
Sugar, Raw,..	9,200,000	8,900,000	7,300,000	8,700,000	9,700,000	5,800,000	4,600,000	5,500,000	11,600,000	10,800,000	8,200,000	15,800,000	12,600,000	6,600,000
Olive Oil,.....	3,500,000	4,600,000	6,300,000	3,800,000	6,900,000	5,200,000	5,900,000	4,300,000	4,300,000	7,400,000	5,100,000	6,100,000	6,100,000	6,300,000
Eggs,.....	3,800,000	3,600,000	3,300,000	2 800,000	3,200,000	3 600 000	3,700,000	3,900,000	3,800,000	4,500,000	4,400,000	5,000 000	5,900,000	4,700,000
Jewelry,.....	2,400,000	3,500,000	3,600,000	2,600,000	2,000,000	5,600,000	3,300,000	3,700,000	3,900,000	4,400,000	3,700,000	7,600,000	7,000,000	5,600,000
Watches,.....	3,200,000	4,600,000	5,500,000	5,200,000	4,500,000	7,800,000	8,500,000	8,000,000	8,500,000	12,500,000	10,600,000	10,600,000	10,000,000	5,500,000
Fashions,.....	1,800,000	2,100,000	2,400,000	2,000,000	1,600,000	2,100,000	2,600,000	3,600,000	4,800,000	6,000,000	5,000,000	6,400,000	6,400,000	5,300,000
Raw Hides,....	3,400,000	2,000,000	2,700,000	2,500,000	3,000,000	2,100,000	3,500,000	3,600,000	3,200,000	4,500,000	4,100,000	5,300,000	4,000,000	4,800,000
Fancy Goods,.	5,600 000	3,500,000	5,300,000	6,000,000	5,600,000	7,400,000	8,400,000	7,300,000	8,600,000	10,800,000	5,900,000	4,500,000	4,500,000	4,200,000
Other Articles,	96,900,000	100,800,000	105,000,000	99,100,000	106,500,000	112,200,000	118,700,000	128,700,000	117,000,000	141,800,000	128,900,000	149,700,000	157,300,000	147,300,000
TOTAL, Francs,	602,400,000	609,900,000	607,800,000	572,600,000	618,100,000	696,200,000	766,300,000	714,700,000	834,400,000	961,200,000	758,100,000	955,900,000	1,003,300,000	1,010,900,000
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
TOTAL, Dollars	112,950,000	114.356 250	113,962.500	107,362 500	115,893 750	130,537 500	143,681,250	134 006,250	156.450.000	180,225,000	142,148,750	179,231,250	188,118.750	189,525.000

IMPORTS INTO FRANCE.—SPECIAL COMMERCE.

ARTICLES.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
Cotton,	51,900,000	49,100,000	57,100,000	51,700,000	49,400,000	58,400,000	62,200,000	65,000,000	67,700,000	76,800,000	76,200,000	89,500,000	71,200,000	94,000,000
Silk,	32,300,000	25,600,000	45,800,000	33,500,000	26,900,000	38,100,000	52,600,000	54,600,000	49,600,000	41,300,000	50,000,000	61,000,000	49,300,000	53,700,000
Sugar, Colonial,	36,900,000	41,400,000	45,900,000	43,200,000	50,400,000	51,300,000	44,600,000	43,700,000	44,800,000	41,800,000	41,700,000	43,300,000	45,100,000	49,200,000
Grain,	900,000	25,100,000	39,900,000	44,700,000	23,200,000	91,200,000	300,000	100,000	100,000	4,400,000	5,800,000	3,500,000	24,700,000	47,200,000
Fruits,	15,500,000	8,300,000	4,000,000	12,000,000	2,000,000	6,900,000	13,600,000	5,800,000	7,800,000	23,700,000	17,900,000	20,500,000	21,500,000	37,600,000
Woods,	20,400,000	20,800,000	20,600,000	22,000,000	14,700,000	19,300,000	24,100,000	27,300,000	32,100,000	31,200,000	31,200,000	31,900,000	34,500,000	34,900,000
Wool,	11,100,000	13,300,000	9,200,000	12,800,000	5,200,000	7,800,000	19,100,000	17,900,000	34,200,000	31,800,000	19,000,000	34,200,000	31,900,000	30,000,000
Tobacco, Leaf,	7,600,000	2,300,000	3,000,000	11,100,000	600,000	4,700,000	10,400,000	6,700,000	5,800,000	7,000,000	13,700,000	15,000,000	24,000,000	29,100,000
Olive Oil,	24,700,000	37,300,000	27,600,000	30,700,000	27,400,000	26,200,000	37,100,000	32,700,000	24,700,000	27,100,000	26,100,000	29,800,000	28,900,000	28,700,000
Linen Yarn,	7,900,000	8,700,000	16,200,000	7,000,000	3,900,000	4,900,000	9,700,000	8,800,000	9,700,000	11,800,000	14,400,000	21,000,000	26,100,000	27,900,000
Raw Hides,	8,600,000	9,000,000	16,800,000	19,600,000	11,100,000	10,800,000	12,900,000	16,100,000	15,700,000	19,600,000	16,800,000	17,500,000	19,600,000	21,000,000
Indigo,	14,800,000	19,600,000	17,300,000	18,300,000	19,100,000	18,400,000	16,800,000	19,000,000	21,300,000	15,100,000	17,900,000	19,500,000	15,900,000	20,900,000
Coal,	8,000,000	8,600,000	8,200,000	9,400,000	8,100,000	8,600,000	10,400,000	11,100,000	11,500,000	14,400,000	16,400,000	17,500,000	17,300,000	18,200,000
Copper,	9,500,000	7,500,000	11,700,000	11,700,000	6,600,000	10,600,000	12,300,000	17,600,000	14,300,000	12,500,000	12,300,000	15,000,000	13,800,000	18,200,000
Linen Goods,	18,100,000	18,100,000	16,200,000	14,400,000	10,800,000	12,600,000	15,800,000	15,900,000	16,900,000	21,900,000	20,800,000	23,100,000	19,300,000	17,800,000
Coffee,	10,900,000	10,500,000	10,100,000	9,600,000	8,400,000	10,400,000	9,400,000	10,800,000	10,200,000	10,900,000	11,700,000	11,500,000	11,300,000	13,300,000
Horses,	3,400,000	4,400,000	4,000,000	5,100,000	8,400,000	2,500,000	2,700,000	2,700,000	3,400,000	5,400,000	6,400,000	7,300,000	7,500,000	11,300,000
Lead,	6,200,000	4,900,000	7,800,000	7,300,000	4,900,000	6,000,000	7,200,000	7,700,000	7,900,000	7,800,000	6,000,000	7,500,000	7,400,000	8,800,000
Live Stock,	11,700,000	13,800,000	13,200,000	11,200,000	7,800,000	6,400,000	6,800,000	6,900,000	7,200,000	8,000,000	6,900,000	8,200,000	9,000,000	8,000,000
Fish,	100,000	100,000	200,000	4,000,000	4,300,000	4,000,000	4,900,000	5,000,000	4,000,000	3,700,000	5,800,000	7,500,000	7,400,000	7,000,000
Fruits, Table,	4,400,000	4,900,000	4,200,000	4,200,000	4,300,000	4,500,000	5,100,000	5,300,000	4,800,000	5,200,000	5,200,000	6,300,000	6,000,000	5,900,000
Dyewoods,	2,900,000	2,500,000	3,200,000	3,500,000	2,400,000	3,700,000	3,700,000	3,600,000	4,700,000	4,000,000	3,300,000	5,200,000	5,300,000	5,800,000
Iron,	4,700,000	4,700,000	4,100,000	4,700,000	3,100,000	4,000,000	4,400,000	5,000,000	5,900,000	6,400,000	6,100,000	6,100,000	5,200,000	5,800,000
Hair,	5,000,000	7,700,000	6,900,000	10,900,000	4,400,000	6,500,000	7,200,000	4,300,000	5,600,000	7,500,000	5,700,000	9,300,000	7,200,000	5,600,000
Rice,	2,500,000	3,400,000	3,900,000	4,200,000	3,700,000	5,500,000	4,200,000	3,600,000	4,000,000	4,800,000	4,500,000	4,100,000	5,800,000	5,600,000
Fish Oil,	1,800,000	2,100,000	2,300,000	1,900,000	2,200,000	3,100,000	2,500,000	2,600,000	2,900,000	3,700,000	5,100,000	4,200,000	5,500,000	5,600,000
Straw Hats,	4,500,000	4,200,000	3,700,000	2,600,000	1,400,000	1,800,000	2,700,000	2,500,000	3,500,000	5,300,000	6,000,000	5,200,000	4,700,000	5,600,000
Silk Goods,	1,700,000	1,800,000	2,300,000	2,800,000	2,400,000	3,600,000	3,700,000	3,400,000	2,800,000	3,700,000	5,100,000	5,100,000	5,200,000	5,200,000
Hemp,	4,200,000	4,400,000	3,000,000	2,200,000	1,200,000	2,400,000	4,000,000	5,300,000	4,800,000	4,600,000	4,400,000	5,900,000	4,200,000	4,000,000
Pewter,	2,100,000	4,300,000	2,300,000	1,600,000	1,600,000	2,000,000	2,900,000	3,300,000	2,300,000	2,500,000	3,700,000	3,500,000	3,600,000	4,000,000
Cheese,	3,100,000	3,200,000	3,100,000	2,800,000	2,000,000	2,300,000	2,800,000	3,300,000	3,200,000	3,100,000	3,600,000	3,200,000	2,800,000	3,300,000
Sugar,	600,000	400,000	300,000	400,000	200,000	200,000	800,000	2,000,000	1,500,000	500,000	1,600,000	1,500,000	300,000	3,100,000
Ashes,	3,400,000	3,000,000	3,100,000	3,300,000	2,200,000	2,500,000	3,300,000	2,600,000	2,400,000	2,700,000	2,400,000	2,500,000	2,300,000	2,100,000
Other Articles,	72,700,000	78,700,000	66,100,000	65,400,000	50,800,000	64,800,000	70,900,000	82,700,000	83,000,000	93,700,000	95,400,000	111,100,000	105,800,000	116,360,000
TOTAL, Francs,	414,100,000	453,700,000	483,300,000	489,200,000	374,100,000	505,000,000	491,100,000	503,900,000	520,300,000	564,400,000	569,100,000	656,500,000	650,600,000	747,400,000
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
TOTAL, Dollars,	78,643,759	85,068,750	90,618,750	91,675,000	64,518,750	94,687,500	92,000,750	94,481,250	97,556,250	105,825,000	106,706,250	123,093,750	121,987,500	140,137,500

EXPORTS FROM FRANCE.—SPECIAL COMMERCE.

ARTICLES.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
Silks and Ribbons,	115,300,000	115,400,000	111,100,000	111,100,000	119,300,000	106,800,000	138,900,000	112,100,000	144,400,000	140,100,000	90,300,000	139,400,000	140,800,000	141,900,000
Cottons,	46,000,000	44,800,000	52,100,000	55,000,000	54,600,000	54,400,000	56,300,000	53,100,000	61,600,000	65,800,000	65,500,000	80,100,000	85,800,000	108,500,000
Woollens,	26,900,000	29,500,000	30,400,000	26,600,000	27,000,000	34,700,000	36,600,000	39,400,000	38,300,000	49,100,000	43,400,000	64,400,000	60,600,000	61,100,000
Wines,	47,200,000	51,800,000	47,500,000	36,700,000	32,000,000	47,900,000	48,900,000	53,700,000	50,400,000	51,400,000	43,600,000	51,600,000	45,200,000	49,300,000
Linens,	44,000,000	38,700,000	35,100,000	28,900,000	31,700,000	32,600,000	27,000,000	26,700,000	30,700,000	31,100,000	21,400,000	28,300,000	30,200,000	28,900,000
Toys,	13,500,000	10,200,000	10,500,000	10,300,000	9,700,000	11,500,000	14,100,000	14,800,000	17,400,000	17,800,000	15,400,000	19,600,000	24,200,000	23,200,000
Paper, &c.	9,900,000	10,300,000	10,700,000	10,200,000	8,300,000	9,300,000	11,200,000	11,200,000	12,800,000	13,800,000	12,800,000	14,500,000	16,100,000	19,300,000
Brandy,	22,300,000	32,900,000	26,100,000	15,300,000	11,900,000	20,700,000	18,700,000	13,700,000	14,900,000	16 200,000	14,900,000	16,700,000	12,400 000	16,200,000
Crockery,	10,800,000	10,500,000	11,600,000	9,600,000	8,400 000	10,500,000	11,800,000	14,600.000	17,500,000	21,200,000	13,900,000	15,400,000	15,300,000	16,100,000
Leather,	12,800,000	12,600,000	13,800,000	13,300,000	13,500,000	14,600,000	17,800,000	15,600,000	19,000,000	21,000,000	14,300,000	18,900,000	20,400,000	15 400,000
Madder,	7,400,000	7,700,000	6,100,000	6,100,000	6,000,000	8,800,000	9,100,000	10,500,000	11,100,000	13,500,000	10,500,000	15,700,000	12,700,000	13,700,000
Horses,	11,300,000	9,000,000	7,100,000	5,600,000	6,400,000	6,300,000	8,900,000	7,800,000	7,600,000	11,200,000	10,100,000	10 600,000	10,700,000	13,600,000
Linen Clothes,	6,400,000	7,000,000	7,300,000	7,500,000	6,000,000	7,600,000	11,900,000	6,300,000	6,400,000	8,100,000	7,600,000	8,700,000	10,300,000	12,100,000
Perfumery,	5,300,000	5,300,000	5,400,000	6,700,000	4,300,000	6,300,000	6,900,000	6,800,000	7,900,000	7,300,000	6,400,000	5,700,000	7,300,000	8,600,000
Tanned Hides,	5,400,000	5,400,000	4,300,000	4,100,000	4,600,000	5,600,000	5,700,000	5,800,000	6,900,000	7,000,000	7,100,000	8,100,000	8,000,000	7,800,000
Table Fruits,	4,200,000	3,100,000	3.300.000	2 600 000	3,100,000	2,000,000	4,100,000	3,300,000	4,000,000	4,000,000	3,000,000	5,200,000	6,700,000	6,600,000
Metal Goods,	3,500,000	3,000,000	3,600,000	2,700,000	2,600,000	3,500,000	2,900,000	3,700,000	4,000,000	4,700,000	4,400,000	4,400,000	5,000,000	6,400,000
Volatile Oils,	3,800,000	4,200,000	4,900,000	4,200,000	4,200,000	4,900,000	7,400,000	4,800,000	4,400,000	4,400,000	3,500,000	4,400,000	5,200,000	6,300,000
Eggs,	3,800,000	3,600,000	3,300,000	2,800,000	3,200,000	3.600,000	3,700,000	3,900,000	3,800,000	4,500,000	4,400 000	5,000,000	5,900,000	5,700,000
Fashions,	2,200,000	2,400,000	2,500,000	2,100,000	1,600,000	1,800 000	2,500,000	5,500,000	4,600,000	5,700,000	4,600,000	6,400,000	6,400,000	5,300,000
Wood,	4,500,000	2,400,000	3,900,000	2,500,000	2,100,000	2,400,000	3,900,000	2,600,000	2,800 000	4,100,000	3,800,000	4,300,000	4,700,000	5,200,000
Jewelry,	2,800,000	3,500,000	3,300,000	2,300,000	1,500,000	1,800,000	2,500,000	3,100,000	3,200,000	3,300,000	2,700,000	4,000,000	5,600,000	4,800,000
Grain,	8,600,000	4,200,000	4,600,000	2,200,000	5,700,000	5,000,000	5,100,000	5,200,000	6,000,000	7,100,000	6,900,000	10 700,000	17,700,000	4,700,000
Refined Sugar,	4,500,000	6,200,000	8,000,000	10,700,000	11,900,000	10,100,000	12,600,000	3,200,000	5,000,000	8,900,000	5,000,000	6,700,000	8,300,000	4,400,000
Fancy Goods,	5,600,000	5,600,000	5,800,000	6,700,000	5,600,000	7,200,000	4,400,000	7,200,000	8,500,000	10,800,000	5,900,000	4,500,000	4,500,000	4 200,000
Machinery,	1,300,000	1,300,000	1,600,000	1,300,000	1,100,000	1,200,000	1,600,000	1,900,000	1,700,000	2,400,000	3,300 000	4,000,000	3,800,000	3,700,000
Metal Plates,	3,100,000	3,200,000	3,500,000	2,400,000	2,000,000	2,300,000	3,100,000	3,800,000	4,000,000	4,100 000	4,300,000	4,200,000	4,200,000	3,700,000
Silk, Raw,									2,200,000	3,200,000	2,700,000	3,900,000	3,800,000	3,700,000
Salt,	2,800,000	2,300,000	1,600,000	1,000,000	1,500,000	2,600,000	2,900,000	3,600,000	2,500,000	2,700,000	2,800,000	3,900,000	3,400,000	3,600,000
Medicines,	1,300,000	1,400,000	1,800,000	1,600,000	1,400,000	1,600,000	2,300,000	2,200,000	2,100,000	2,300,000	2,300 000	2,100,000	2,900,000	3,000,000
Flax,	900,000	2,300,000	1,600,000	1,700,000	2,600,000	1,500,000	1,700,000	600,000	900,000	1,500,000	1,000,000	2,200,000	4,500,000	2,800,000
Paints,	1,200,000	1,200,000	1,100,000	900,000	900,000	1,200,000	1,600,000	1,200,000	2,200,000	2,000,000	2,200,000	1,900,000	1,900,000	2,600,000
Other Articles,	68,200,000	70,200,000	60,800,000	50,200,000	50,800,000	77,100,000	73,300,000	62,000,000	48,600,000	88,700,000	74,400,000	83,400,000	82,900,000	82 600,000
TOTAL, Francs,	506,800,000	511,200,000	504,200,000	452,900,000	455,500,000	507,400,000	559,400,000	500,900,000	577,400,000	629,000,000	514,400,000	659,000,000	677,400,000	695,000,000
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
TOTAL, Dollars,	95,025,000	95,850,000	94,537,500	84.918.750	85,406 200	95 137,500	104,887 500	95 606 250	108 262.500	117 562 500	96 450.000	123,562 500	127 012 500	130 312 500

These tables offer a prolific subject of investigation: some of the leading features we will proceed to point out. It will be observed that the raw materials for manufactures have largely increased in import, more particularly cotton, silk, wool, &c., and the increase is mostly for consumption in France. For instance, the aggregate increase of cotton since 1828 has been f.90,000,000, of which f.45,000,000 has been for French consumption. The import of linen goods for consumption in France has yearly decreased, while the import of linen yarns has rapidly increased. In tobacco and coal the increase has been very large. The following is a table of the quantity of coal imported:—

TONS OF COAL IMPORTED INTO FRANCE.

From	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
England.....	70,908	141,517	187,215	263,943	272,609	324,210
Belgium.....	614,978	715,868	788,260	794,724	739,592	767,728
Other countries.	80,981	106,445	119,293	104,948	143,926	143,902
England, for the used of steamships.....	16,984	31,329	35,247	41,424	47,351	54,867
Total tons.....	783,851	995,159	1,130,015	1,205,039	1,203,478	1,290,707

These are tons of 1,000 kilogrames, or 2205.48 lbs. avoirdupois. Of the two great classes of imports, viz, "natural products," and those "necessary to manufactures," the latter has the most rapidly increased, being 2 per cent in the general commerce, and 5 per cent in the special commerce. The most important articles of French industry exported, are, it appears, silks, woollens, and cottons. The first take the front rank. All these articles of export have rapidly increased in magnitude, cotton having increased 74 per cent since 1835, and woollens 61 per cent. The following are the quantities for four articles of French production exported in each year:—

Years.	*Wines.* *Hecto.*	*Brandy.* *Hecto.*	*Grains.* *Hecto.*	*Flour.* *Quint.—Met.*
1835	1,300,669	184,582	143,014	128,897
1836	1,305,216	199,215	190,554	147,193
1837	1,114,296	188,389	179,956	217,759
1838	1,376,504	208,001	388,205	188,834
1839	1,193,775	154,187	870,123	175,194
1840	1,333,580	192,625	216,765	97,818

After this general sketch of the operations of the French commerce, showing a surprising increase, indicative of a high state of prosperity, we may pass to the consideration of the duties of all descriptions received by the administration, whereof the following is a table:—

REVENUE OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE CUSTOMS OF FRANCE.

	Customs.	*Navigation tax.*	*Taxes accessory.*	*Salt tax.*	*Total.*
1827	95,136,806	2,753,598	778,214	54,375,812	153,044,436
1828	105,612,043	2,971,883	698,233	54,243,020	163,525,179
1829	101,028,087	3,236,146	656,336	54,166,518	159,085,087
1830	99,020,716	3,291,136	629,811	51,317,083	154,258,746
1831	93,004,274	2,313,307	613,571	55,876,699	151,807,851
1832	102,319,465	2,932,777	583,410	53,857,946	159,693,598
1833	102,893,195	2,681,444	700,065	54,975,860	161,250,564
1834	102,486,309	2,775,507	842,149	53,515,560	159,619,525
1835	103,668,031	2,940,809	823,451	54,759,422	162,191,713
1836	106,793,708	3,054,511	949,766	54,992,697	165,790,682

REVENUE OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE CUSTOMS OF FRANCE.—*Continued.*

	Customs.	*Navigation tax.*	*Taxes accessory.*	*Salt tax.*	*Total.*
1837	106,772,005	3,168,176	854,968	57,155,588	167,950,737
1838	112,511,558	3,180,064	3,127,282	54,742,541	173,561,445
1839	106,934,834	2,790,199	2,983,506	56,824,406	168,532,945
1840	115,809,181	3,107,437	2,888,647	56,577,626	178,382,891

The customs embrace the import and export duties. The duties on navigation embrace a variety of charges, viz: registering vessels, transfer per centage, tonnage duties on entree, passports, &c. on departure. The accessory taxes consist of ten or twelve different charges, as transit duty, charge on merchandise exported from the warehouse, warehouse charges, &c. &c. The total shows a great increase of revenue. This increase, however, arises almost altogether from the customs, and the articles which have yielded the greatest revenue are cotton, coffee, foreign sugar, grain, and lead.

The following table will show the value of foreign merchandise received at the various entrepôts of the kingdom :—

VALUE OF MERCHANDISE RECEIVED AT THE VARIOUS PORTS OF ENTRY IN FRANCE.

	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Havre	136,700,000	149,800,000	145,100,000	175,700,000	148,300,000	206,100,000
Marseilles	130,800,000	157,400,000	154,300,000	145,900,000	178,200,000	167,300,000
Bordeaux	50,700,000	61,300,000	54,100,000	58,500,000	64,500,000	62,300,000
Lyons	47,900,000	34,700,000	44,500,000	56,500,000	41,200,000	41,300,000
Paris	34,400,000	33,600,000	24,700,000	28,200,000	28,900,000	24,300,000
Nantz	13,400,000	16,200,000	15,200,000	18,900,000	19,200,000	15,600,000
Rouen	10,100,000	12,200,000	10,100,000	9,700,000	5,400,000	8,000,000
Bayonne	9,300,000	10,500,000	7,200,000	5,500,000	7,500,000	7,100,000
Dunkirk	5,300,000	6,000,000	5,600,000	6,900,000	5,700,000	6,200,000
Strasbourg	1,300,000	1,600,000	2,200,000	3,000,000	2,400,000	2,300,000
Metz	800,000	1,200,000	800,000	3,600,000	1,600,000	2,000,000
Calais	5,000,000	2,800,000	1,200,000	3,300,000	1,500,000	1,100,000
Toulouse	3,200,000	2,200,000	1,800,000	1,500,000	1,100,000	900,000
Orleans	400,000	300,000	500,000	400,000	500,000	300,000
Other ports	8,200,000	9,900,000	12,000,000	6,700,000	14,300,000	13,400,000
Total francs,	457,500,000	499,700,000	479,300,000	534,300,000	520,300,000	558,200,000

This table gives a large increase in some of the ports, but a falling off in others.

The transit trade of France, or that which is carried on by the countries of the interior of Europe across France to ports of shipment, has been very important and is rapidly increasing. The greatest proportion of this trade is carried on between England on the one hand and Switzerland on the other. The trade of the latter country particularly has enormously increased in the last 5 years, having risen from f.20,000,000 to f.55,000,000, or nearly 200 per cent!—a greater increase than has been presented by any country in the same space of time, and has doubtless grown out of that almost entire freedom of trade which is enjoyed by the Swiss operatives. The following tables will show the transit trade of France with each country.

TRANSIT TRADE OF FRANCE—COUNTRIES OF PRODUCTION.

	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Switzerland	20,500,000	64,000,000	41,400,000	47,200,000	60,600,000	54,900,000
Great Britain	23,000,000	20,200,000	20,900,000	28,500,000	25,500,000	36,000,000
Sardinia	45,800,000	38,100,000	17,500,000	31,800,000	26,200,000	28,700,000
United States	9,700,000	13,400,000	11,700,000	14,600,000	8,400,000	20,600,000
Germany	13,300,000	14,100,000	15,100,000	15,200,000	20,400,000	17,100,000
Belgium	20,500,000	14,700,000	13,500,000	13,700,000	13,100,000	10,600,000
Prussia	12,700,000	22,000,000	11,500,000	7,800,000	11,800,000	7,000,000
Other countries	13,000,000	16,100,000	16,000,000	24,100,000	26,500,000	21,600,000
Total francs,	158,500,000	204,600,000	147,600,000	182,900,000	192,500,000	196,500,000

COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION.

	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Switzerland - - -	41,000,000	46,200,000	43,000,000	49,200,000	40,800,000	55,500,000
Great Britain - -	33,400,000	39,700,000	24,400,000	46,000,000	34,700,000	44,500,000
United States - -	41,800,000	63,300,000	29,300,000	34,500,000	66,100,000	40,400,000
Spain - - - - -	12,100,000	14,900,000	13,200,000	13,600,000	14,000,000	14,500,000
Sardinia - - - -	8,500,000	8,600,000	7,300,000	9,200,000	8,800,000	8,600,000
Brazil - - - - -	4,800,000	6,500,000	5,300,000	4,600,000	5,800,000	7,700,000
Belgium - - - -	5,400,000	5,500,000	6,100,000	5,200,000	3,700,000	3,500,000
Other countries - -	11,500,000	19,700,000	19,000,000	20,600,000	18,600,000	21,600,000
Total francs,	158,500,000	204,400,000	147,600,000	182,900,000	192,500,000	196,300,000

This is a most remarkable table in many points of view, and illustrates the peculiarities which attend the trade of each country in a singular degree. We may instance Switzerland, England, and the United States. The first-mentioned has a steady and sound currency, with no protective tariffs. England and the United States have a fluctuating paper currency, which periodically inflates prices to an extraordinary extent. This was the case in 1836 and 1839. In that year of inflation it will be seen that the exports of Swiss goods rose more than 200 per cent, or f.44,000,000; of this f.22,000,000 was sent to the United States, and f.6,000,000 to England. Notwithstanding this enormous increase of exports, Switzerland increased her imports but f.5,000,000. England actually decreased her exports f.3,000,000, and the United States increased but f.4,000,000. The reason is evident, viz: the prices in Switzerland, under a steady currency, remained unchanged, while the enormous inflation in the United States and England favored the sale of her goods to an extraordinary extent, and at the same time prevented Switzerland from purchasing any more of their products. The same general features appertain to the whole trade of France, and indicate that it is destined to increase to a prodigious extent.

ART. IV.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES IN FIFTY YEARS,

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER VI.

THE CENSUS OF 1840, BEING THE SIXTH DECENNIAL ENUMERATION UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

THE population was distributed under the same heads by this census as by that of 1830. This, however, also exhibits copious details of every branch of productive industry in the United States, by which we are furnished with authentic data for estimating the revenue and wealth of the Union, and the several states. They will be used for this purpose after the subject of population is disposed of.

The result of the census of 1840, as to population, may be seen in the five following tables,* viz:—

* The four first tables having been already published in this work, are now omitted. See Merchants' Magazine, Vol. vi. No. 3, for March, 1842, pages 274, 275, 276, and 277.

TABLE V.—SHOWING THE AGGREGATE NUMBER OF WHITES, FREE COLORED PERSONS, AND SLAVES, OF EACH SEX, IN THE SEVERAL STATES ON THE 1ST OF JUNE, 1840.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITES.			FREE COLORED.			SLAVES.			GRAND TOTAL.
	Males.	*Females.*	*Total.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total.*	
Maine,	252,989	247,449	500,438	720	635	1,355	.....	.....	.....	501,793
New Hampshire,	139,004	145,032	284,036	248	289	537	.....	1	1	284,574
Vermont,	146,378	144,840	291,218	364	366	730	.....	.....	.....	291,948
Massachusetts,	360,679	368,351	729,030	4,654	4,014	8,668	.....	.....	.....	737,699
Rhode Island,	51,362	54,225	105,587	1,413	1,825	3,238	1	4	5	108,830
Connecticut,	148,300	153,556	301,856	3,891	4,214	8,105	8	9	17	309,978
New York,	1,207,357	1,171,533	2,378,890	23,809	26,218	50,027	.....	4	4	2,428,921
New Jersey,	177,055	174,533	351,588	10,780	10,264	21,044	303	371	674	373,306
Pennsylvania,	844,770	831,345	1,676,115	22,752	25,102	47,854	35	29	64	1,724,033
Delaware,	25,259	29,302	58,559	8,626	8,293	16,919	1,371	1,234	2,605	78,085
Maryland,	158,804	159,400	318,204	29,187	32,891	62,078	46,068	43,669	89,737	470,019
District of Columbia,	14,822	15,835	30,657	3,453	4,908	8,361	2,058	2,636	4,694	43,712
Virginia,	371,223	369,745	740,968	20,094	26,024	49,842	228,861	220,326	448,987	1,239,797
North Carolina,	240,047	244,823	484,870	11,227	11,505	22,732	123,546	122,271	245,817	753,419
South Carolina,	130,496	128,588	259,084	3,864	4,412	8,276	158,678	168,360	327,038	594,398
Georgia,	210,534	197,161	407,695	1,374	1,379	2,753	139,335	141,609	280,944	691,392
Florida,	16,456	11,487	27,943	398	419	817	13,038	12,679	25,717	54,477
Alabama,	176,692	158,493	335,185	1,030	1,009	2,039	127,360	126,172	253,532	590,756
Mississippi,	97,256	81,818	179,074	718	651	1,369	98,003	97,208	195,211	375,654
Louisiana,	89,747	68,710	158,457	11,526	13,976	25,502	86,529	81,923	168,452	352,411
Arkansas,	42,211	34,363	76,574	248	217	465	10,119	9,816	19,935	97,574
Tennessee,	325,434	315,193	640,627	2,796	2,728	5,524	91,477	91,582	183,059	829,210
Kentucky,	305,323	284,930	590,253	3,761	3,556	7,317	91,004	91,254	182,258	779,828
Missouri,	173,470	150,418	323,888	883	691	1,574	28,742	29,498	58,240	383,702
Ohio,	775,360	726,762	1,502,122	8,740	8,602	17,342	2	1	3	1,519,467
Indiana,	352,773	325,925	678,698	3,731	3,434	7,165	1	2	3	685,866
Illinois,	255,235	217,019	472,254	1,876	1,722	3,598	168	163	331	476,183
Michigan,	113,395	98,165	211,560	393	314	707	.....	.....	.....	212,267
Wisconsin,	18,757	11,992	30,749	101	84	185	4	7	11	43,112
Iowa,	24,256	18,668	42,924	93	79	172	6	10	16	30,945
TOTAL	7,249,266	6,939,842	14,189,555	192,550	199,821	386,348	1,240,408	1,240,805	2,487,355	*17,063,353

* Add Seamen in United States service 6,100—grand total, 17,069,453.

The decennial increase since the census of 1830, was

Of the whole population . .	32.67	per cent.—
Of the whites	34.66	"
Of the free colored . . .	20.88	"
Of the slaves	23.81	"
Of the whole colored . . .	23.4	"

The distribution of the different classes under this census, compared with that of 1830, was as follows, to wit:

	1840.		1830.	
The whites amounted to .	83.16	per cent.	81.90	per cent.
The free colored . . .	2.26	"	2.48	"
The slaves	14.58	"	15.62	"
	100.		100.	

If we compare the increase of numbers shown by this census with that shown by the census of 1830, by adding to the last the proportional increase for two months, we find that the ratio of increase had diminished in the last 10 years (33.92—32.67=) 1.25 per cent. But as the ratio of increase in the largest class, the whites, had, at the same time, experienced an increase, (equal to 0.14 per cent,) the diminution was proportionally enhanced in the two smaller classes, constituting the colored part of the population. Thus the increase of the free colored persons had fallen off from 34.85 to 20.88, or 13.97 per cent, and the slaves from 30.75 to 23.81, or 6.94 per cent.

These differences are so great, compared with any before experienced, as to cast a shade of suspicion over the accuracy of the last enumeration, if they were not capable of explanation.

First, As to the greater rate of increase of the whites. This class has experienced a small advance in its decennial increase since 1820, as, by the census of that year, it was 34.30 per cent, by the fifth census 34.52 per cent, and by the sixth 34.66 per cent. The progressive increase of ratio thus shown is to be ascribed to the known increase of immigration, which, as will be subsequently shown, has augmented at a rate beyond our indigenous multiplication, and which would have manifested itself much more sensibly in the two last enumerations, if there had not been a decline of the natural increase in the old settled states, and if the settlement of Texas had not furnished, for the first time, an instance of emigration of whites from the United States. We have no data for estimating the number of whites who have thus emigrated, but they probably have not been short of 50,000 since 1830, and may have reached to double that number; that is, the loss from this source may be from one half to one per cent of the white population in 1830.

Secondly, The smaller rate of increase of the colored population. This race has also lost by emigration. Slaves have been carried to Texas; some have escaped to the British dominions on this continent; and many free negroes are known to have migrated thither. This class has probably also received fewer accessions than formerly by emancipation. The zeal of abolitionists, by a natural reaction, has had the effect not only of making the holders of slaves less disposed to liberate them, but has also influenced the policy of some of the state legislatures, and created new difficulties in the way of emancipation. These circumstances have had the

greater comparative effect, because before the last ten years, and since 1810, the colored race had received no accessions from abroad, and had sustained little loss from emigration.

We have no means of estimating these separate influences, but we learn how great must have been their united effect when we find that if the increase of the free colored class had been as great in the last ten years, as in the ten preceding, their numbers would have been 44,650 more than it was at the late census; and that if the increase of the slaves had also continued the same, their number would have been 128,000 more than it seems to be at present. A diminution in the rate of decennial increase of the colored race so considerable as to be equivalent to 172,000 persons, may seem to some yet greater than can be reasonably ascribed to the conjoint effects of emigrations to Texas and to British America, and to the extraordinary mortality which was experienced by the slaves transported to the southwestern states during a part of the last decennial term; in which case, there seems to be no alternative but to question the accuracy of this part of the census.

The proportions between the sexes, in the several classes, were as follows, viz:

In the white population, the males exceed the females as 100 to 95.73
" free colored " the females exceed the males as 107.14 to 100
" slave " the males exceed the females as 100 to 99.55

The proportion of white males was greater than it was in 1830, but that of the colored males was less. The first difference was probably produced by the increased immigration of the whites, and the last by the greater emigration of the colored race—a greater proportion of those who migrate being commonly males.

The males and females of each class were thus distributed, according to age, viz:

1st. *Of the white population—*

	Males.	*Females.*
Those under 5	17.53 per cent.	17.34 per cent.
5 and under 10	14.13 "	14.22 "
10 and under 15	12.13 "	12.06 "
15 and under 20	10.43 "	11.41 "
20 and under 30	18.24 "	18.06 "
30 and under 40	11.95 "	11.23 "
40 and under 50	7.40 "	7.23 "
50 and under 60	4.34 "	4.39 "
60 and under 70	2.40 "	2.50 "
70 and under 80	1.11 "	1.16 "
80 and under 90	.30 "	.35 "
90 and under 100	.04 "	.05 "
	100	100

2d. *Of the free colored class—*

Those under 10	30.21 per cent.	27.57 per cent.
10 and under 24	28.32 "	28.31 "
24 and under 36	18.93 "	20.86 "
36 and under 55	15.16 "	15.21 "
55 and under 100	7.23 "	7.87 "
100 and upwards	.15 "	.18 "
	100.	100.

3d. *Of the slaves*—	*Males.*	*Females.*
Those under 10	33.91 per cent.	33.97 per cent.
10 and under 24	31.39 "	31.44 "
24 and under 36	18.89 "	19.32 "
36 and under 55	11.65 "	11.22 "
55 and under 100	4.11 "	4. "
100 and upwards	.06 "	.05 "
	100.	100.

The above proportions do not materially vary from those of the preceding census. The chief difference is, that in all the classes the proportion of those under ten years of age was less in 1840 than in 1830, as may be thus seen, viz:

The number of								
whites,	under 10	was,	in 1830,	32.53 p'ct.		in 1840,	31.63 p'ct.	
free colored,	" 10	"	"	30.11	"	"	28.88	"
slaves,	" 10	"	"	34.09	"	"	33.93	"

Table showing the population in the slaveholding states, and how it was distributed among the three classes on the first of June, 1840.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	*Total Population.*	*Whites.*	*Free colored.*	*Slaves.*	PER CENTAGE OF		
					Wh'ts.	*Free color'd.*	*Slaves.*
Delaware,	78,085	58,561	16,919	2,605	74.9	21.7	3.4
Maryland,	470,019	318,204	62,078	89,737	67.7	13.2	19.1
D. of Columbia,	43,712	30,657	8,361	4,694	70.1	10.7	19.1
Virginia,	1,239,797	740,968	49,842	448,987	59.8	4.	36.2
North Carolina,	753,419	484,870	22,732	245,817	64.4	3.	32.6
South Carolina,	594,398	259,084	8,276	327,038	43.6	1.4	55.
Georgia,	691,392	407,695	2,753	280,944	59.	.4	40.6
Florida,	54,477	27,943	817	25,717	51.3	1.5	47.2
Alabama,	590,756	335,185	2,039	253,532	56.7	.3	42.9
Mississippi,	375,654	179,074	1,369	195,211	47.6	.4	52.
Louisiana,	352,411	158,457	25,502	168,452	44.9	7.2	47.8
Arkansas,	97,574	77,174	465	19,935	78.5	1.1	20.4
Tennessee,	829,210	640,627	5,524	183,059	77.2	.7	22.1
Kentucky,	779,828	590,253	7,317	182,258	75.7	.9	23.4
Missouri,	383,702	323,888	1,574	58,240	84.4	.4	15.2
TOTAL,	7,334,434	4,682,640	215,568	2,486,226	63.41	2.92	33.67

It appears from the preceding table, that the whites, in the slaveholding states, have in the last ten years gained on both classes of the colored population; but that in Mississippi, as well as South Carolina and Louisiana, the number of slaves exceeds that of the white population.

Art. V.—COMMERCIAL VOYAGES AND DISCOVERIES.

CHAPTER VI.

VOYAGE OF WILLIAM RUTTER—METRICAL NARRATIVE OF A VOYAGE BY ROBERT BAKER—HIS ADVENTURES IN AN OPEN BOAT—VOYAGE OF CAPTAIN DAVID CARLET, 1564—PROGRESS OF ENGLISH COMMERCE—SPANISH JEALOUSY AND FRAUD—GALLANT ADVENTURE OF THE PRIMROSE—TWO VOYAGES TO BENIN, BEYOND GUINEA, BY JAMES WELSH.

NUMEROUS accounts of voyages from this time, which we have not space even to mention, are preserved in Hakluyt, and other voluminous collections. Among the rest a voyage was made to Guinea in 1562, by William Rutter, which had the advantage of being described both in verse and prose. The metrical version was made by Robert Baker, one of the factors; the other was contained in a letter from Rutter to his principal. The first was published in the first edition of Hakluyt, but was left out and its place supplied by Rutter's letter in the second edition.

The expedition, which consisted of the Minion and Primrose, does not seem to have been very successful. They met with the usual sea adventures of those days, when there reigned a continual state of warfare upon the ocean, no matter what were the relations of the different nations of Europe on shore. The best friends by land appear to have attacked each other without any compunction at sea. It is true that the continual succession of wars furnished them often with a good excuse for violence, and led them to suspect in every strange sail an enemy; but there were repeated instances where inveterate hostilities were carried on between trading ships of nations who were notoriously on the most amicable terms; and the commercial expeditions of the day were generally fitted out with an eye to plunder as well as trade.

Rutter had several fights with Portuguese ships, and with the negroes, and succeeded in obtaining two butts of grain and one hundred and sixty-six elephant's teeth. His crews, as in most all African voyages at the time and since, suffered severely from the climate, not over twenty of his men being left able to work the ships.

The next year, Baker, author of the poetical account of Rutter's adventures, who at the time had resolved never again to encounter the dangers and difficulties of an African voyage, was induced to take charge of another expedition. Leaving England, they came across two French ships, attacked the largest, and after a hard fight captured her, and took her into a port in Spain, where they disposed of her cargo.

Arrived on the coast of Guinea, Captain Baker got out his boat, and with eight men started for the shore to open a trade. When near the shore a violent gale arose, which forced the ships from their anchors and drove them out to sea. The boat sought some place of shelter along shore, but not finding any, was compelled to lie to in momentary expectation of swamping during the whole storm. Next morning the ships returned to the station, and remained for some time looking for the boat, but the mist prevented them from seeing, and concluding that it must have been lost, they gave up the search, and set sail for England.

"Captain Baker, and his companions in distress, having been three days without any food, at length landed, and having exchanged some wares for roots and such other provisions as they had, put to sea again in pursuit of the ships which they still supposed to be before them. Thus they continued twelve days ranging the shore, where they saw nothing but thick

woods and deserts full of wild beasts, which often appeared, and at sunset came in herds to the seaside, where they lay down or played upon the sand, and sometimes to cool themselves flounced into the water. It would have been diverting at another time to see how archly the elephant would fill his trunk and then spout it upon the rest. Besides deer, wild boars, and antelopes, Mr. Baker saw many strange kinds of creatures which he never before beheld."

They landed frequently and had communication with the natives, purchasing from them water, palm wine, fish, and honey, by which they were kept from starving. But their strength was rapidly reduced by grief, fatigue, and want of rest. Working along shore, they found that they had arrived at the gold-coast, which they ascertained from the negroes speaking Portuguese, and from their coming with weights and scales to trade. Their visiters inquired after the ships to which they belonged, and were told that they were a little distance at sea and would soon arrive. It was now necessary to take some resolution as to the course they were to pursue. All further search for the ships was useless. They had now been twenty days huddled together, without space to stir or lie down, frequently without food for three days, and exposed to the exhausting heats by day and violent squalls and rains at night. Their joints began to swell with the scurvy, and their legs to be paralyzed from want of exercise. In this condition, Mr. Baker addressed his companions, telling them that it was evident that they could not keep to the boat much longer, and that something must be decided upon, and that a choice of three courses was before them. "The first was to repair to the castle of the Mina, which was not far, and deliver themselves up to the Portuguese, who were Christians, if they could expect any more humanity from them on that account. However, he told them that the worst that could happen to them would be to be hanged out of their misery. The next course was to throw themselves upon the courtesy of the negroes. As to this expedient, Mr. Baker told them that it was a very discouraging one, for that he could not see what favor was to be hoped for from a beastly savage people, whose condition was worse than that of any slave; that possibly they might be cannibals, and then they were to go to pot at once without ceremony; that in case they should not, their customs were so opposite to the European, that they could not possibly comply with them. That it was not to be imagined that they who had always fed upon the flesh of animals could live upon roots and herbs. That being accustomed to wear clothes, they could not for shame go naked, and expose those parts of their bodies to view which from infancy had been covered: that in case they could get the better of their modesty in this point, yet for want of that defence against the sunbeams which they had always been used to, their bodies would be grievously tormented, as well as emaciated, and their spirits exhausted by the scorching heats.

"The last course they had to take, was to stay in the boat and die miserably there. But as they seemed willing to run any risk by land rather than continue pent up in such a narrow compass, subject to all the inclemencies of the weather, day and night, as well as liable to be famished for want of victuals, Mr. Baker, in conclusion, gave it as his opinion with regard to the other two methods, that more trust and confidence was to be put in the Portuguese, who had been baptized, than in the negroes, who lived in a brutish manner."

The result showed that Mr. Baker was very much mistaken in his opinion. Adopting his advice, they hoisted sail and directed their course towards the Portuguese castle, which was twenty leagues distant. Arrived close into the castle, their hearts failed them, and they would have returned, but a shot fired by the Portuguese fell within a yard of them, and they judged it best to row quickly to the shore and learn their fate. To their great surprise, as they came on the Portuguese commenced firing into them, but at length they got close to the castle walls and beneath the cannon; but the assault continued with stones thrown from the castle, and bodies of negroes began to attack them with arrows. This uncivil treatment demanded some return, and the Englishmen went to work with their bows and fire-arms. After dropping a few of the negroes and some of the Portuguese, who flourished about upon the walls in long white shirts, they coolly hoisted sail and stood off in search of a more friendly place.

Having had so rough a reception from the Portuguese, they resolved to try the negroes. Sailing back about thirty leagues, they cast anchor and opened a communication with the natives, by whom they were well received. To those who came off to them they gave presents. "The news of the arrival of such generous strangers brought the king's son on board. As soon as he came, Mr. Baker began movingly to explain their case to him, making great lamentations, and giving him to understand by signs that they were quite undone, had lost their ships, and were almost famished; at the same time offering him all the goods they had in the boat, provided he would take them under his protection.

"The negro chief, moved by the tears which fell plentifully from the eyes of all, refused the present, and bade them be comforted. He forthwith went ashore to know his father's pleasure, and presently returning, invited them to land." This they undertook to do, but the sea running high, their boat capsized, and they were with difficulty rescued by the negroes from the surf. Provisions were furnished them, and in a short time they recovered from their fatigue. The negroes, however, in time grew careless of their wants, and although they offered not to molest them, they suffered them to shift for themselves, and get a living as they best could, which was rather a difficult matter for the natives themselves. They were compelled to range the woods for berries and roots, and to go naked, as their clothes in time dropped off from them in rags. Their privations and exposure aided the effects of the climate, and in a short time they were reduced by death to three. At length, when abandoned by hope, a French ship appeared, received them on board and conveyed them to France, where they were detained as prisoners, and where Mr. Baker composed his metrical narrative of his adventures.

In 1564 an expedition was got up under the command of Captain David Carlet. No regular narrative was written, and all that is known of the voyage is from extracts from Sir John Hawkins' Second Voyage to the West Indies, preserved in Hakluyt, who also gives the terms of an agreement entered into at a meeting of the projectors. The ships were the Minion, a queen's ship, the John Baptist, of London, and the Merlin, owned by Mr. Genson.

"The chief adventurers were Sir William Gerard, Sir William Chester, Sir Thomas Lodge, Anthony Hickman, and Edward Castelin. They all met on the eleventh of July, 1564, at Sir William Gerard's, to consult measures for setting forward the voyage; at which meeting they came to

several resolutions. First, that Francis Ashbie should be sent to Deptford to Mr. Genson, for his letters to Peter Pet to set about rigging the Minion, at the charges of the queen. After which he was to repair to Gellingham, with money to defray the adventurers' charges there. Second, that each of the five partners should call upon their partners to advance, towards new rigging and victualling, £29 10*s.* 6*d.* out of every hundred. Third, that each of the five partners should deposit fifty pounds towards the said occasions. Fourth, in case Mr. Genson gave his consent that the Merlin should be brought round from Bristol to Hampton, that a letter should be obtained under his hand before order was given for the same."

A few leagues from port this expedition was encountered by the one under Hawkins, afterwards Sir John, who was making his second voyage to the West Indies, in command of the Jesus, of Lubec, and three other ships. The squadrons saluted each other, when the Minion put back to ascertain the reason why the Merlin lagged so far behind. A storm came on and separated the ships, and Hawkins putting into Ferrol, in Spain, was joined by the Minion, from whom he learned the accident that had happened to the Merlin. Through carelessness her magazine had exploded, killing several men, and shattering her so that she soon sunk. Her crew were fortunately saved by a brigantine which happened to be near.

Both squadrons left Ferrol together, and kept company together until they came within sight of Teneriffe, when the Minion and John Baptist stopped at the islands, and the Jesus and her companions stood on their course to the West Indies.

Hawkins afterwards learned from Captain Bon Temps, of the Green Dragon, a French vessel, which had met the Minion on the coast of Guinea, that the ships were driven off by the Portuguese galleys, that Captain Carlet, with his boat's crew, had been betrayed by the negroes into the hands of the Portuguese, by whom they were made prisoners, and that the ships had lost so many men from the climate and from the want of fresh water, that it was doubtful if those that remained would be strong enough to work the vessels home, so that the voyage was a complete failure.

The progress of English commercial enterprise had by this time fully aroused the jealousy of the Spanish and Portuguese, who were now united under one government, and all possible means were resorted to to prevent the extension of their trade. The Spaniards are accused of having recourse to all kinds of fraud when force would not answer, and with violating without scruple the most solemn oaths and engagements. But as these are all exparte statements, they must be received with some grains of allowance; or rather they must be considered in connection with the violence and injustice with which in many instances the faults of the Spaniards were repaid. All merchant ships had to go armed, until at last, as the editor of Astley states, "the resentment of the nation being inflamed by their repeated treacheries and depredations, they began to send out fleets on purpose to annoy their coasts and disturb their navigation." Nothing is in this intimated of the irresistible temptation to plunder afforded by the rich Spanish treasure-ships, which generally fully repaid, if it did not induce, most of the maritime expeditions of the English.

Hakluyt gives the translation of an order of the Spanish king, apprising the governors of the different provinces, that it was his intention to fit out a great fleet in the Tagus, and directing them to seize with all

secrecy and dissimulation upon any vessels that were then, or might be afterwards, upon the coast or in the ports belonging to Holland, Ireland, Germany, England, and *other provinces in rebellion against him*, and upon their goods, arms, and munitions.

The enforcement of this order gave occasion to the crew of an English merchant vessel to perform a feat, which is perhaps worthy of notice. The account is to be found in Astley, and is justly entitled "The gallant behavior and escape of the Primrose, of London, from Bilboa, in Biscay."

This vessel, the Primrose, of one hundred and fifty tons, arrived off Bilboa on the twenty-fifth of May, 1585, and was immediately boarded by the corregidor of the province, and six others seeming to be merchants. They brought with them some spirit, and were very polite and courteous in their demeanor to Mr. Foster, the master, who entertained them very politely in return. His suspicions were however excited by the return of two or three of the party to the shore, but he did not choose to exhibit any distrust before his remaining guests, although "he told his mind to some of his ship's crew." In a short time there came towards them a ship's boat containing seventy persons, merchants and others, and a little astern another with twenty-four persons. They came up alongside, and the corregidor, with three or four men, stepped on board. Mr. Foster requested that no more might be allowed to come on board, which was readily promised, but in a moment or two the Spaniards poured in after their leaders, with their rapiers and other weapons.

They immediately took possession of every thing in a tumultuous manner. Some planted themselves under the deck, some entered the cabins, and others looked about for their prey. Then the corregidor, having an officer with him who bore a white rod in his hand, spoke thus to the master of the ship: "Yield yourself, for you are the king's prisoner." Hereupon the master said to his men, "We are betrayed." Forthwith some of the Spaniards set daggers to his heart, making a show as if they would kill him, which put him into a terrible consternation, as well as the ship's crew, who concluded they should all be instantly slain. Their interest however was not to murder, but to bring them to shore. However, some of them, roused by the danger they saw the master was in, and reflecting that they could hope for nothing but present death if once they landed among the Spaniards, resolved to rescue themselves out of their hands, or die in the attempt.

"This resolution was no sooner taken, but they immediately laid hold of the javelins, lances, boar-spears, and fire-arms which they had set in readiness before, encouraging one another to exert their valor. They had five calivers ready charged, which was all their small shot. Of a sudden, those that were under the hatches let fly at the Spaniards, who were over their heads, which so amazed them that they could hardly tell which way to run, imagining that the English were much better provided with powder and shot than was the case. Others dealt about them so courageously with their cutting weapons, that they disabled two or three Spaniards at every stroke. Hereupon some of them desired the master to command his men to hold their hands, but he answered that such was the resolution of the English in their own defence, that they would slay them and him too if he should propose the thing to them.

"By this time their blood ran in streams about the ship; some of them were shot in between the legs, the bullets issuing forth at their breasts—

others had their heads cloven by swords, others were thrust through the body with pikes, and many of the rest grievously wounded, so that they began to run out faster than they came in. Such was their hurry and confusion in endeavoring to escape, that they rather tumbled or threw themselves overboard with their weapons in their hands, than went off—some falling into the sea, and others getting into the boats and making all the haste they could towards the city; and this is to be noticed, that although a great number of them came thither, only a small company of them returned. Of the English only one was killed and six hurt. After all, it was dismal to behold how the Spaniards lay swimming in the sea, and were not able to save their lives."

Thus was the Primrose cleared of her treacherous visiters; and if we consider that they were as four to one, well armed, and had actual possession, it must be allowed that it was an exceedingly gallant achievement—one that can hardly be surpassed by any thing in the annals of the military marine. It is not, however, the only instance of the kind that the merchant service has to boast. The gallantry of the English and American commercial marine would fill volumes of exciting and brilliant adventure.

Of the miserable Spaniards driven overboard from the Primrose, four were saved by the English, among whom was the corregidor, who was governor of one hundred cities and towns, and who had about him the king's secret order under which he had made the attempt to seize the ship. He offered large sums to be put on shore, but Foster would not consent, and he was taken a prisoner to England, where the Primrose safely arrived in June.

In 1588, a voyage was made to Benin, beyond Guinea, an account of which was written by the master, James Welsh. It is the last of the early African voyages of the English that we can notice, as the voyages to the East Indies, the first of which was performed the year after, will demand our attention in the next chapter.

The expedition was got up by Bird and Newton, two London merchants, and consisted of the Richard, of one hundred tons, and a pinnace. Starting on the twelfth of October, they were weather-bound for several weeks and did not get fairly to sea until December. On the second of January they came in sight of the African coast near the Rio del Oro; the eighteenth they were off Cape Mesurado, and on the fourteenth of February they anchored in the river Benin, now known to be one of the mouths of the Niger. Here they anchored in the road, as there was not enough water to carry the vessel over the bar, and sent the pinnace and boat, into which they had transferred the principal part of their merchandise, up the river to a place called Gotto. From thence they sent up negroes to the city of Benin, to apprise the king of their coming, and their desire to trade. He directed them to come up to court, and sent two hundred negroes to carry their goods, as the pinnace could get no further by water.

Arrived at court, they were at first prevented from seeing the king on account of a religious feast, but they received every assurance of friendship. On the first of March they were admitted to the king's presence, who made a courteous answer to their demand as to traffic. Next day there were sent twelve baskets of pepper, and a little every day until the ninth of March, when they had collected sixty-four cerons of pepper, and twenty-eight elephant's teeth, with which the pinnace went off to the ship.

By this time the climate began to show its usual effects, and the master and all of the crew of the pinnace were sick. On the thirteenth the pinnace again returned from an expedition up the river, bringing some elephant's teeth and a hundred and fifty more cerons or sacks of pepper.

The sickness had now made such progress that they were compelled to give up the trade and start for home with such pepper and teeth as they had obtained. "At coming away, the veadore or governor of the city of Benin, told them that if they could stay any longer, he would use all possible expedition to bring in more commodities. But the sickness so increased and continued, that by the time the rest got on board, so many of the ship's company were sick and dead that none of them expected to get home alive, but to leave their ship and bones behind. It was with the greatest difficulty that they could get up their anchors, but having done it at last, they left the pinnace and set sail homeward."

On leaving the coast the men began to recover, but in passing the Cape de Verds they were taken worse, and had they not luckily met with a bark belonging to the same owners, from which they had six men, they would not have been able to work their way home.

The history of this voyage is the history of a thousand that have been made since to that most dangerous gulf, the Bight of Benin. Many of them have however been much more disastrous, and there have been instances where whole crews have been swept off within a few days, leaving not a single officer or man to take charge of the ship. The disastrous results of the recent British expedition up the Niger prove the virulence of the climate at the present day.

In 1590 the same master made a second voyage to Benin, taking out a cargo of broadcloths, kersies, baize, linen, iron, bracelets of copper, coral, hawk-bells, horse-tails, hats, &c., and bringing home five hundred and eighty-nine sacks of pepper, one hundred and fifty elephant's teeth, and thirty-two barrels of palm oil.

In this voyage they suffered less from the climate than in the first, which was partly attributed by the captain to a way he had of preserving his water fresh; so that the water that came from the river Benin on the first of April, 1591, was perfectly sweet in June, 1592. The secret however is not explained.

Art. VI.—CONSTRUCTION AND FIRST VOYAGE OF THE GRIFFIN;

A VESSEL BUILT BY LA SALLE AND HIS COMPANIONS IN 1679, NEAR THE FALLS OF NIAGARA, AND WHICH SAILED FROM THENCE TO GREEN BAY, AND WAS LOST ON HER RETURN VOYAGE.—TAKEN FROM THE NARRATIVE OF FATHER HENNESSIN.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:

In an old French work in my possession, printed in 1698, entitled, "*An account of the discovery of a very great country situated in America,*" by Father Hennessin, I find an account of the building of the first vessel that navigated the waters of the western lakes.

I am aware that Father Hennessin has been charged by Charlevoix, and subsequent writers, on his authority, with being a "*great liar;*" but I believe the volume of travels *first* published by him, and in which the above is contained, is now generally admitted to be authentic.

In a subsequent volume, published after the death of La Salle, and from whose fame as first discoverer of the mouth of the Mississippi, he wished to detract, Hennessin gives an account of his descent to the mouth of the Mississippi, and which, being evidently fictitious, has cast suspicion upon his former publication.

Since the vast increase of the commerce of the western lakes, there is a peculiar interest connected with the construction and voyage of the adventurous bark of La Salle; and as the work from which I have translated the account is very rare, I have made, and herewith send an abstract of the same, which will be found more full and satisfactory than the one contained in the first volume of the collections of the New York Historical Society; and its publication at this time, in connection with your articles on "Early Commercial Voyages and Discoveries in America," may not be uninteresting to your numerous readers. "MARQUETTE."

LE GRIFFON.

Previous to the year 1679, the intrepid Jesuits, in their ardent desire to Christianize the ignorant savages, performed their long and toilsome voyages to those parts west and south of Lake Michigan, in bark canoes, after the manner of the savages, traders, and *courieurs du bois*, either through the River St. Lawrence, Niagara, and the lakes, or by ascending the Ottawa river to the source of one of its western branches, and thence by portages, through Nepissing lake and the River des Francais, by which they reached Lake Huron. The latter route was generally preferred, the distance being several hundred miles less, although the occurrence of numerous rapids, requiring tedious ad difficult portages, often decided them in favor of the former. The Sieur de la Salle, a native of Rouen, in France, who conceived the design of building the Griffin, was a man of genius and courage. Desirous of prosecuting the discoveries which the bold Marquette had opened, La Salle and his little band left Fort Frontenac (now Kingston) on the 18th of November, 1678, on board a vessel of 40 tons burden, and 16 men, commanded by Sieur de la Motte, which was the first vessel that sailed on Lake Ontario. They arrived in the mouth of the Niagara river on the 6th of December, and chanted the Te Deum as they entered its beautiful stream. After remaining one day at the mouth of the river, they ascended its current in a canoe for six miles, in search of a convenient place for building. The rapids above Lewistown preventing them from advancing further by water, they continued their search nine miles by land, and not finding a soil proper for cultivation, they encamped above the falls at the mouth of a small river now called Chippewa creek. The snow being a foot deep, they were obliged to remove it before encamping. The next day they retraced their steps to their vessel, meeting in their route numbers of deer and wild turkeys. Their commander, the Sieur de la Motte, no longer able to endure the rigor of such a life, returned to Fort Frontenac. The wind continuing contrary the 12th, 13th, and 14th of December, the party left with the vessel were unable to ascend the river to the point where they had determined to erect some buildings. On the 15th La Salle placed Father Hennessin at the rudder, and three of their company towed the vessel as far as the Great Rock, or mountain ridge at Lewistown, where they moored their vessel to the bank. The next day they built a cabin of stakes or palisades.

The neighboring Senecas being extremely jealous of their constructing

a fort, they pretended it was only a magazine in which to store the goods which should be brought for the purpose of trade.

On the 27th of December the Sieur de la Motte, accompanied by Hennessin and seven of their companions, went on an embassy with presents to a village of the Senecas called *Tegarondies*, (near Geneseo,) about 96 miles distant. After 5 days' march they arrived at the village, and were well received. After holding a council and delivering their presents they returned, but without effecting the object of their mission. Their presents were received, but the suspicions and jealousies of the cunning savage were not allayed. On the 14th of January they arrived at their little cabin on the banks of the Niagara, worn out with the fatigue of the embassy, right glad to exchange their coarse fare of Indian corn for the white fish, just then in the season, and which were pronounced to be the finest fish in the world. On the 20th of January M. de la Salle returned from Fort Frontenac, whither he had gone for provisions, and necessaries for the vessel he intended building above the falls, but his bark, through the carelessness of the pilot, was wrecked on the south side of Lake Ontario, about 30 miles from the mouth of the Niagara; nothing was saved but the anchors and cables. Such a calamity would have dispirited any one but the enterprising La Salle.

In the mean time the construction of a fortification was commenced at the mouth of the river on the site of the present Fort Niagara; but the jealous savages soon discovered the design, and it was temporarily discontinued, and a building surrounded with palisades substituted.

It now became necessary for La Salle, in furtherance of his object, to construct a vessel above the falls of Niagara, sufficiently large to transport the men and goods necessary to carry on a profitable trade with the savages residing on the western lakes. On the 22d of January, 1679, they went 6 miles above the falls to the mouth of a small creek, and there built a dock convenient for the construction of their vessel.*

On the 26th of January the keel and other pieces being ready, La Salle requested Father Hennessin to drive the first bolt, but the modesty of the good father's profession prevented.

During this rigorous winter La Salle determined to return to Fort Frontenac; and leaving the dock in charge of an Italian named *Chevalier Touti*, he started, accompanied by Father Hennessin as far as Lake Ontario; from thence he traversed the dreary forests to Fort Frontenac on foot, with only two companions and a dog which drew his baggage on a sled, subsisting on nothing but parched corn, and even that failed him two days' journey from the fort. In the mean time the building of the vessel went on under the suspicious eyes of the neighboring savages, although the most part of them had gone to war beyond Lake Erie. One of them, feigning intoxication, attempted the life of the blacksmith, who defended himself successfully with a red-hot bar of iron. The timely warning of

* There can be but little doubt that the place they selected for building their bark, was the mouth of Cayuga Creek, about 6 miles above the falls. Governor Cass says, "the vessel was launched at Erie." Schoolcraft in his journal says, "near Buffalo;" and the historian Bancroft locates the site at the mouth of Tonawanda Creek. Hennessin says the mouth of the creek was two leagues above the great falls; the mouth of the Tonawanda is more than twice that distance, and the Cayuga is the only stream that answers to the description.

a friendly squaw averted the burning of their vessel on the stocks, which was designed by the savages. The workmen were almost disheartened by frequent alarms, and would have abandoned the work had they not been cheered by the good father, who represented the great advantage their perseverance would afford, and how much their success would redound to the glory of God. These and other inducements accelerated the work, and the vessel was soon ready to be launched, though not entirely finished. Chanting the Te Deum, and firing three guns, they committed her to the river amid cries of joy, and swung their hammocks in security from the wild beasts and still more dreaded Indians.

When the Senecas returned from their expedition they were greatly astonished at the floating fort, "which struck terror among all the savages who lived on the great lakes and rivers within 1,500 miles." Hennessin ascended the river in a bark canoe, with one of his savage companions, as far as Lake Erie. They twice poled the canoe up the rapids, and sounded the lake for the purpose of ascertaining its depth. He reported that with a favorable strong north or northwest wind the vessel could ascend to the lake, and then sail without difficulty over its whole extent. Soon after the vessel was launched and anchored in the current of Niagara about 4½ miles from the lake, Hennessin left it for Fort Frontenac, and returning with La Salle and two other fathers, Gabriel and Zenobe Mambre, anchored in the Niagara the 30th of July, 1679. On the 4th of August they reached the dock where the ship was built, which he calls distant 18 miles from Lake Ontario, and proceeded from thence in a bark canoe to their vessel, which they found at anchor three miles from the "beautiful Lake Erie."

The vessel was of 60 tons burden, completely rigged and found with all necessaries, arms, provisions, and merchandise; it had 7 small pieces of cannon on board, two of which were of brass. There was a griffin flying at the jib-boom, and an eagle above. There were also all the ordinary ornaments and other fixtures which usually grace a ship of war.

They endeavored many times to ascend the current of the Niagara into Lake Erie without success, the wind not being strong enough. Whilst they were thus detained, La Salle employed a few of his men in clearing some land on the Canadian shore opposite the vessel, and in sowing some vegetable seeds for the benefit of those who might happen to inhabit that place.

At length the wind being favorable, they lightened the vessel by sending most of the crew on shore, and with the aid of their sails and ten or a dozen men at the tow-lines, ascended the current into Lake Erie. Thus on the 7th of August, 1679, the first vessel set sail on the untried waters of Lake Erie. They steered southwest, after having chanted the never-failing Te Deum, and discharged their artillery in the presence of a vast number of Seneca warriors. It had been reported to our voyagers that Lake Erie was full of breakers and sand-banks, which rendered a safe navigation impossible; they therefore kept the lead going, sounding from time to time.

After sailing without difficulty through Lake Erie, they arrived on the 11th of August at the mouth of the Detroit river, sailing up which they arrived in Lake St. Clair, to which they gave the name it bears. After being detained several days by contrary winds at the mouth of the St. Clair river, they at length succeeded in entering Lake Huron on the 23d of August, chanting Te Deum through gratitude for a safe navigation thus far.

Passing along the eastern shore of the lake, they sailed with a fresh and favorable wind until evening, when the wind suddenly veered, driving them across Saginaw Bay, (Sackinaw.) The storm raged until the 24th, and was succeeded by a calm which continued until the next day noon, (25th,) when they pursued their course until midnight. As they doubled a point which advanced into the lake, they were suddenly struck by a furious wind, which forced them to run behind the cape for safety. On the 26th the violence of the storm compelled them to send down their top-masts and yards, and to stand in, for they could find neither anchorage or shelter. It was then the stout heart of La Salle failed him; the whole crew fell upon their knees to say their prayers and prepare for death, except the pilot, whom they could not compel to follow their example, and who on the contrary "*did nothing all that while but curse and swear against M. La Salle, who had brought him thither to make him perish in a nasty lake, and lose the glory he had acquired by his long and happy navigations on the ocean.*" On the 27th, favored with less adverse winds, they arrived during the night at Missillimackinack and anchored in the bay, where they report 6 fathoms of water, and clay bottom. This bay they state is protected on the southwest, west, and northwest, but open to the south. The savages were struck dumb with astonishment at the size of their vessel, and the noise of their guns. Here they regaled themselves on the delicious trout, which they describe as being from 50 to 60 lbs. in weight, and as affording the savages their principal subsistence. On the 2d of September they left Mackinaw, entered Lake Michigan, (Illinois,) and sailed 40 leagues to an island at the mouth of the Bay of Puans, (Green Bay.) From this place La Salle determined to send back the ship laden with furs to Niagara. The pilot and five men embarked in her, and on the 18th she fired a gun and set sail on her return, with a favorable wind. Nothing more was heard from her, and she undoubtedly foundered in Lake Huron with all on board. Her cargo was rich, and valued at 60,000 livres.

Thus ended the first voyage of the first ship that sailed over the western lakes. What a contrast is presented between the silent waves and unbroken forests which witnessed the course of that adventurous bark, and the busy hum of commerce which now rises from the fertile borders, and the thousand ships and smoking palaces which now furrow the surface of those inland seas!

Art. VII.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.—THE MERCHANT CAPTAIN.

SIR WILLIAM PEPPERRELL, BART.

William Pepperrell, the father of the subject of this sketch, was a native of Cornwall, in England; whence he came to this country as early as 1676, seeking his fortune on the rough shores of New England, which had been so quaintly eulogized by their worthy discoverer, "Captain John Smith, sometymes governor in those countryes, and admirall of New England." Various apocryphal stories are told of his early proceedings in the country. One represents, that he, in company with a Mr. Gibbons, of Topsham, in England, first settled on the Isles of Shoals; but finding themselves rather restricted in their operations, each set up a stick, and

waited patiently for the course which Providence should mark out for them to take, in the direction of the sticks as they fell! Gibbons' stick fell to the northeast, and Pepperrell's towards the northwest. Both followed these courses with great enthusiasm; Gibbons going into that part of Maine, since know as the Waldo patent, and Pepperrell settling at Kittery Point, near the mouth of the Piscataqua. Another account informs us that he settled at the Isles of Shoals as a fisherman, and was so poor for some time after his arrival, that the lady to whom he paid his addresses at the Shoals, would not listen to him. In a few years, however, by dint of industry and frugality, he acquired enough to send out a brig, which he loaded, to Hull. The lady now came forward and gave her consent; and after their marriage, they removed to Kittery Point. Certain it is, that he removed to Kittery Point soon after his arrival in this country, where he married a Miss Bray, daughter of John Bray, a respectable shipwright of Kittery. He engaged extensively in the fisheries, at that time the great and profitable business of most of the settlers. Having amassed a large property in these and other commercial pursuits, he became a magistrate, and died on the 15th of February, 1734, aged 86. He is said to have been a religious man, exemplary in his deportment, honorable in all his dealings, and left behind him, what is better than a thousand flattering eulogies and fulsome epitaphs—a good name.

Sir William Pepperrell, the subject of this notice, was born in 1696. He was the only son, having two sisters, one of whom, Mary P., died 18th April, 1766, having been the widow of Hon. John Frost, the Rev. Dr. Colman, and the Rev. B. Prescott. The other sister married the Hon. John Newmarch. He received from his parents a religious as well as a mercantile education. His mother was a very pious woman, and the early instructions of his parents exercised no feeble influence over the whole course of his life, and to them might justly be referred that spirit of devotion which marked his after career.

Mr. Pepperrell married (March 16th, 1723) Mary Hirst, the daughter of Grove Hirst, of Boston, and the granddaughter of Judge Sewall.* Allen records an anecdote relating to his courtship which is quite amusing. When he first saw her in 1722, at the house of the Rev. Samuel Moody, of York, her relative, his visit was very unwelcome to Joseph, the son of Mr. M., who in his journal has recorded that he was bewildered by the attractions of the young lady. It is no wonder that the pretensions of the schoolmaster could not rival those of Mr. P., the heir of a man of wealth, who also conducted the affair with much skill, making presents of gold rings, *a large hoop*, and other articles of dress, thus awakening a little vanity, which drew upon Miss Hirst, who in the preceding year had made a profession of religion, the remonstrances of her sober friends.

Mr. Pepperrell was chosen one of his majesty's council about the year

* He had two children; a daughter, Elizabeth, who married Col. Nathaniel Sparkawk, of Kittery; and a son, Andrew, who graduated at Harvard College in 1743, and died March 1st, 1751. Col. Sparhawk had several children; one of whom, William, assumed the name and title of Sir William, but dying in London in 1816, the title became extinct.

Lady Mary Pepperrell died at her seat in Kittery, Nov. 25th, 1789. Her natural and acquired powers were said to be highly respectable, and she was much admired for her wit and sweetness of manners.

1727, which office he retained, by annual re-elections, to the time of his death. During eighteen years of the thirty-two, he was *first* in the council. His services, in this department of his public life, were highly honorable to himself and satisfactory to the people of the province. His practical knowledge and experience enabled him to see the bearing of public measures upon the private interest, and to prepare for obstacles in legislation unforeseen by councillors of less sagacity. These qualities rendered him extremely popular, both with the government and the people, and were thoroughly tested during the long continuance of his councillorship. He was also early in life chosen to represent his town in the "Great and General Court," and in all his public offices, "he ever approved himself a true friend to the interest and prosperity of the province, by his cheerful concurrence in enacting laws, planning measures, and prosecuting schemes for the public good." The country had few, if any, more zealous advocates for, or defenders of, its liberties and privileges.

When the New England provinces determined to attempt the reduction of Louisbourg, Mr. Pepperrell was selected and commissioned as commander-in-chief. Had military skill and experience been required in the selection of a general in this case (says Belknap) the expedition must have been entirely given up, for there was not a man in New England, in these respects, qualified for the command. Fidelity, resolution, and popularity were to supply the place of military talents; and Pepperrell was the possessor of these. A note, found among Pepperrell's papers, written to him from Boston, while he was at Louisbourg, intimates a reason for his election. "You were made general, being a *popular man*, most likely to raise soldiers soonest." This was necessary, for the army was an army of volunteers, who could only be enlisted under the auspices of a man whom they loved and respected. In the "Address of his Majesty' Council and House of Representatives," they say, "that his (Pepperrell's) appointment gave them great satisfaction and hopes," and that "no mercenary or vain considerations induced him to accept of this difficult and hazardous service; nothing but a zeal for his majesty's interest, and an ardent affection for the good of his fellow-subjects could have carried him from the most affluent fortune among us, and from the head of his majesty's Council, the highest honor his native country could put upon him."

Some self-denial indeed was required, that he should consent to take the command. His private business and domestic affairs required constant attention, and it was no mean sacrifice to tear himself from his family to engage in an expedition so doubtful and hazardous. His commission (31st January, 1744) appointed him commander-in-chief of all the forces, by land and sea, raised and to be raised for the expedition. Before accepting the command, he consulted the celebrated George Whitefield, who was then preaching in New England. Whitefield at first discouraged the expedition, telling him that he "did not think the scheme very promising; that the eyes of all would be on him; if it should not succeed, the widows and orphans of the slain would reproach him; if it should succeed, many would regard him with envy, and endeavor to eclipse his glory; that he ought, therefore, to go with a 'single eye,' and then he would find his strength proportioned to his necessity." After some hesitation, he was finally induced to favor the expedition, and furnished a motto for the flag, which, it has been remarked, gave to the enterprise the air of a crusade—"NIL DESPERANDUM, CHRISTO DUCE."

After many difficulties and vexatious delays incident to such expeditions, the troops finally embarked on the 24th March, 1745. There were about four thousand in all, of whom Massachusetts furnished the greater portion, Connecticut and New Hampshire each supplying their quota of men. Rhode Island sent about three hundred, but they did not arrive till after the surrender. Ten vessels, of which the two largest carried only twenty guns each, with the armed sloops of New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, serving as transports and cruisers, constituted the entire naval force until their arrival at Canseau, where they were joined by Commodore Warren, in the Superbe, of sixty guns, with two other ships of forty guns each.* After having been detained at Canseau about three weeks waiting for the breaking up of the ice round Cape Breton, they arrived at the mouth of Chapeaurouge Bay on the morning of the 30th April, and immediately laid siege to the fortress.

The siege continued until the 16th June, when the French commander, Duchambon, capitulated, and the colonial troops took possession of the place. On the 26th, Pepperrell thus writes from Louisburg to the lords commissioners of admiralty, communicating the intelligence of "the reduction of Louisburg and the territories adjacent."

"I presume the acquisition of this place, of so much importance to the trade of his majesty's subjects in America, will be peculiarly agreeable to him and the whole nation, and that speedy measures will be taken for the security thereof, and the settling of this island, which I humbly apprehend nothing will more conduce to, than his majesty's establishing a civil government here, and making Louisburg a free port for some years. I can't but flatter myself, that our success in the reduction of this place (so much the pride of France) is an happy prelude to some further progress against the French settlements in America, which, should it please his majesty to promote, I am persuaded his New England subjects will cheerfully offer their weak service."

It was indeed an acquisition of importance, and deprived the French of an invaluable protection, the key of the St. Lawrence, the only convenient communication with Canada, the flourishing and favorite colony of France. The extensive fisheries and trade in those waters were liable to constant interruption from any force which might be placed in the fortress and harbor, where before this time they had prosecuted their commerce in perfect security. While in the possession of France it was an effectual barrier to the successful prosecution of the English fisheries, dividing their forces between Newfoundland and Canseau, fitting out privateers to scour the coasts of the English plantations, and offering a safe retreat for them with their prizes. Here too the French East and West Indian fleets found a secure harbor; and from this port they could ship their supplies of fish and lumber to their sugar colonies. Another important political consid-

* Circumstances contributed to aid the enterprise, by bringing together several British vessels of war, from which at the outset no assistance could have been expected. According to Haliburton, the men-of-war that arrived from time to time at Louisburg, during the siege, were—

Superbe, of 60 guns, Lancaster, 40, Mermaid, 40—under Commodore Warren. The Prize Vigilant, 64 guns, Princess Mary, 60, Hector, 40, Chester, 50—from England. Canterbury, of 60 guns, Sunderland, 60, Lark, 40—from Newfoundland. Eltham—called in from convoying the mast-ships to England.

eration was connected with the reduction of this place. The French had contemplated an expedition to reconquer Nova Scotia, but this capture entirely subverted their plans. The colonies by this victory afforded the parent country the means of purchasing a peace. It restored all the conquests of the French in the Netherlands, and all the advantages they had gained in a most successful war on the continent—though it was an exchange extremely mortifying to the colonists, who had so gallantly achieved the conquest.*

There were many ungenerous attempts made to deprive the provincials of the honor justly due to their services in this affair, by exalting the merits of the naval force, and attributing to its support the success of the enterprise; and these unworthy returns for their services constituted no unimportant item in that series of wrongs which, in the language of a British historian, "finally estranged their affections, and prepared their minds for the great conflict which subsequently severed the colonies from Great Britain."

With a due sense of his distinguished merit and services in this undertaking, George II., on the 15th of November, 1746, conferred on Mr. Pepperrell the title and dignity of a baronet, an honor never before conferred on a native of New England. He also commissioned him as colonel of a regiment of foot, to be raised in the colonies for the preservation of their acquisitions.

In the subsequent war with the French, he was commissioned first as major-general, and afterwards as lieutenant-general,† and though he did not take the field again, he aided by his counsels and influence the cause of his sovereign in America. For two or three years previous to his death, he had at times been subject to severe attacks of disease, and in the last six months of his life, in the words of his minister, "he enjoyed little ease." Before the conclusion of "the war of '55," he "left the service of his earthly sovereign, and entered upon the reward of his labors." He died at his seat in Kittery, July 6th, 1759, having just completed his sixty-third year.

A few words may complete our sketch of his life and character. Bred a merchant, he entered into his business with all the zeal which a mercantile turn of mind could excite, aided by the influence of circumstances which seemed to indicate directly the course he should pursue. Prudence and industry, quickened by this spirit, enabled him to make large additions to his paternal estate. Scrupulously honest in all his dealings, he esteemed highly those principles of commercial integrity which form the only safeguard in commercial pursuits. "He not only spoke often of their importance, but more than once remarked, that he did not remember ever to

* Governor Belcher, in a letter to Secretary Waldron, of New Hampshire, (Nov. 22d, 1750,) says of Pepperrell and the conquest of Louisbourg: "The enterprise he attempted, and by the favor of heaven succeeded in, at the head of his brave New England boys, brought on the peace, after we had been beaten over and over; restored the Austrian and Dutch Netherlands, saved Holland from becoming a county of France, and in short, procured every other good thing couched in the treaty; so that the brave, the honest Sir William Pepperrell richly deserves an accumulation of profits and honors from his king and country."

† His commission as major-general was dated 27th February, 1755, and that of lieutenant-general, the 31st January, 1759.

have promised payment and failed, either as to time or sum. And his word, when once given, was sacred in that respect, as he considered it an evidence either of a weak or a wicked mind to promise when there was not an ability or a good prospect of performance."* In personal appearance the baronet is said to have been of middle stature, erect and commanding. His dress was usually in the expensive style of those days, of scarlet cloth, trimmed with gold lace. It is a homely tradition, that whatever he willed was done. None thought it wise to dispute his wishes. He was affable, frank, kind, sincere, an affectionate husband, and a tender parent. His religious character we have already noted, and his minister informs us that the last petition which he desired to be put up for him was, that he might have an open and abundant entrance administered to him into the everlasting kingdom of Christ. So died "*the mighty man, the man of war, the judge, the president, and the ancient, the honorable man and the counsellor.*"

Art. VIII—LIGHTS AND SHADOWS OF MERCANTILE LIFE.

II.—A GLIMPSE OF BANKRUPTCY.†

"Why, who cries out on pride?
Doth it not flow as hugely as the sea,
Till that the very, very means do ebb?"
As You Like It.

The clerk retraced his way to his humble home a much happier man than when he had left it an hour before. He felt happy in the consciousness of having successfully discharged a duty, the performance of which, in anticipation at least, had been attended with no little unpleasantness. We trust that none of our readers will accuse him of old-fashioned fastidiousness, when we tell them that his feelings had all along strongly recoiled from the task he had undertaken. Not that he thought again for one moment of his own sacrifice in the business, for his mind was no sooner made up, than he forgot self, and looked forward only to his resolution and his duty. His anxiety was of a different nature. Praiseworthy and virtuous as his object was, its accomplishment seemed to demand that he should outstep, in appearance at least, those bounds which habit, position, and respect had always maintained between his principal and himself. Might not the honest pride of the merchant be wounded by the proposal, involving as it did the possible loss of the little fortune which his own confidence and generous policy had enabled his clerk to amass? Or even if Mr. Ockham should judge differently concerning the hazard of the investment, might not his own awkwardness in making the proposal wound the feelings of one who was as sensitive as he was noble-hearted? These fears, however overstrained and unnecessary some may be disposed to esteem them, had embarrassed him during the whole of the interview,

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* Stevens' Funeral Sermon. A free use has been made of this sermon in the present sketch. The writer would also acknowledge his obligations to Belknap's valuable History of New Hampshire, Haliburton's Nova Scotia, and the collections of the Massachusetts and New Hampshire Historical Societies.

† See Merchants' Magazine for February, 1842, vol. vi., No. 2, page 169.

until Mr. Ockham, unconscious of the true nature of his feelings, removed his anxiety by offering security. This offer, although he had more than half determined to refuse to avail himself of it, at once caused the delicate negotiation to assume somewhat the air of a business transaction. The relative position of the parties seemed to be maintained, and the embarrassment of the single-hearted clerk was over.

"A mortgage, indeed!" said he, as the tolling of the hour of nine induced him to quicken his pace—"Well, I never thought of security, but was heartily glad when Mr. Ockham mentioned it. Of course I shall never accept security from *him*, but it was awkward to speak of the loan as I did. It's over now, however"—

The current of his thoughts was arrested by the sound of a familiar voice, and the tones of the speaker caused him to look round in some surprise. Two persons were approaching, but the shadow of an awning prevented him for a moment from discerning their features. A dreadful oath, in the same voice, sent a thrill of horror through his frame, and this was followed by vulgar and boisterous laughter. He advanced a few steps and turned again. A tall elegantly-dressed young man was approaching with an uncertain step, in noisy conversation with a person considerably older, and rather shabbily attired, whose air and language betokened any thing but respectability. The clerk quickened his step, as if he was desirous of avoiding the pain of an unwelcome recognition. But a recognition was not so easily avoided.

"Hawkins, Bill Hawkins, as I'm alive!" shouted the young man in his ear, while a heavy blow upon the shoulder of the clerk bore witness to his physical manhood. "Roving, Hawkins? Bless us, man, it's nine o'clock. Where is Mrs. Hawkins and the little Hawkinses? Who's to sing lullaby now, William, eh?"

"Ha! ha! capital, Henry," shouted the respectable companion of this noisy young gentleman: "Placide is a fool to you—use him up, my hearty."

"Come, Hawkins," proceeded the other, very sensibly encouraged by this judicious approval of his leader, "show us your cheek, and don't be squeamish about showing that sly face at the bar."

Whatever might have been his conduct in other circumstances, under this insulting treatment, the clerk did not answer, for at that moment a broad glare of light from a drawing-room fell across their path. As if it had been a spectre, the clerk turned pale and grasped the arm of the young man, silently pointing to the window. The other looked up, made a desperate effort and steadied himself. That glance was enough. The laughter ceased. The two advanced swiftly to the corner of the street, and disappeared. Hawkins passed on with a slow step, and again cast a glance at the drawing-room window. A gentleman whose form was partially concealed by the folds of the rich curtain stood there gazing out upon the street, and yet apparently unconscious of ought that was transpiring before him. Hawkins shuddered at his look, for it was care-worn, haggard, almost wild. The cheek was pale and hollow, the lips strongly compressed, and the brow bent as if in intense and painful thought.

"Colonel Beers seems *very* unwell," soliloquized the clerk as he passed on. "Yet what wonder? so much excitement by day and such dissipation by night. It is enough to wear out a man of iron!"

And then there arose in his mind the image of his own quiet and happy

home. He thanked God, and pressed forward to gain the reality of a vision which was among the few such that are not dreams.

His benevolent sympathy with the supposed illness of Colonel Beers would have been greatly increased, perhaps, if he could have caught a glimpse of the splendid and apparently joyous scene within. There the beautiful, the fashionable, the voluptuous, were killing time midst music and smiles as gaily as if time were not a portion of eternity, as fruitlessly as if they had verily become the butterflies which they seemed. Joyous they were, seeing not or heeding not the black void infinite above them and beneath; for the god of this world has a charm wherewith to blind the eyes of his votaries, even when they are staggering on the verge of the abyss. The scene perhaps was joyous to *all* except the proud lord of the pageant, who stood shrouded by the curtains and looking out vacantly upon the night. Was he indeed ill? Alas! there is a sickness of the heart whose pangs can prostrate the strongest, for which there is no remedy, no solace but—in heaven. And Colonel Beers had never learned to seek for solace there.

A brilliant company was assembled in honor of the birth-day festival of the second daughter of Colonel Beers, a young lady just entering upon society, but already celebrated for her beauty and accomplishments. As to her wealth and prospects, the commercial metropolis needed no other voucher than the name of the merchant-noble whose daughter she was. Carriage after carriage continued to arrive, each with its contribution of splendor and fashion to swell the triumph of the evening.

The furniture of the saloon (for it is necessary to our moral that we glance at it) was altogether in a style of the most princely magnificence. Rich carpets vied in splendor with superb sofas, divans, and ottomans, glittering chandeliers and French pier-glasses. Yet the glitter was far from being a vulgar one, for evidences of taste were there. Several beautiful specimens of statuary were placed around the apartment, and the walls were hung with paintings of the Italian masters, mingled here and there with choice specimens of American genius. A piano of exquisite workmanship and finish occupied one of the richly curtained recesses, and a harp leaned against the divan. The centre-table was covered with books and engravings, and the silvery light from the chandeliers shed a rare cheerfulness and brilliancy within the apartment.

On a sofa, in the centre of the scene, sat, or rather reclined in the most graceful of attitudes, the empress of the festival, Miss Julia Middleton Beers, surrounded by the usual number of ambitious young gentlemen, her particular admirers. Fame had not exaggerated the charms of this young lady; she certainly was beautiful, and of an order of beauty as rare as it was enchanting. Her eye was soft, dark, lustrous, with good humor and innocence in its expression, with perhaps a subdued gleam of the pride which is never wholly absent from the heart of one that finds pleasure in the adulation of the gay world. The delicate brunette of her complexion was well relieved by the rich crimson upon her cheek, and the bright and girlish smile upon her lip. That smile too, bright and girlish as it was, had a dash of scorn, partly affected, but revealing something of character. Her hair simply parted upon a forehead decidedly intellectual in its cast, descended below her temples in a profusion of curls slightly confined by a band and brilliant, once the glory of Marquand.

At her side, and dividing her attention with wonderful skill among the various guests as they successively appeared or became stationary at her daughter's throne, sat the agreeable, worldly-minded Mrs. Beers. Her placid countenance, speaking eye, and clear unwrinkled brow, revealed nothing of the anxiety, the care, the suspense, that like fiends were tugging at her heart-strings. What painful mockery does the world sometimes demand of its votaries! How surely do the worshippers of this Dagon become his victims! Fascinating indeed is the glittering whirlpool that rolls unceasingly around his shrine; but, alas for those who, having ventured in, are carried down to the black deeps beneath, when the india-rubber bag of fortune suddenly collapses!

Altogether in contrast with the beautiful daughter and the worldly-minded mother, thus presented to the reader, are two individuals whom it is also incumbent on us to notice for a moment amidst the throng which now almost fills the saloon. On a sofa at the right sits a young lady, upon whose plain but not unpleasing features we discern intelligence, sweetness of disposition, and womanly gentleness. She is engaged in apparently earnest conversation with a gentleman whose appearance and manners are characterized by a modest and quiet dignity not common in one so young. There is a shade of care upon her brow, and her eye is troubled at times as she steals a glance at the curtained recess of the window. That young lady is the eldest daughter of Colonel Beers, and her companion is the only son of Mr. Ockham, a young lawyer of some eminence and much promise.

The eye of Emily Beers brightened as her father advanced from his position and approached the sofa which she occupied.

"I find these rooms oppressively warm, my dear," he observed as he took a seat by her side, and laid his hand upon hers.

"I feared you were ill, father," replied his daughter in a voice of peculiar sweetness, "and waited anxiously for your re-appearance."

"The heat overcame me," replied Colonel Beers, with a faint smile; "and, besides, I am far from feeling well."

The ingenuous and affectionate girl thought no more of the causes of the extreme paleness and former dejection of her father. There was yet an expression about his full, haughty eye which mere physical pain is not wont to bring on; but Emily either saw it not, or interpreted it as her father wished to have it interpreted. He arose, passed on, and was soon lost in the throng of his guests.

"I think you hardly do us justice, Mr. Ockham," said Emily, as if in reply to some previous remark of the young lawyer; "you must surely give our sex credit for some power of endurance—for fortitude in suffering, if not for that active courage which we hardly need."

"Certainly," replied the lawyer; "my remark was a general one, and it is my own fault that you misunderstood me. I have recently become acquainted with instances that illustrate your remark most thoroughly and most nobly. Washington Irving's beautiful tale of 'The Wife,' can hardly be said to come up to your meaning, perhaps; but circumstances recently falling within my knowledge have convinced me how exquisitely true it is; indeed, Miss Beers, almost a portrait."

"One could almost wish, if it were not sinful," remarked the young lady, with a slight glow upon her cheek, "that such cases might occur oftener, for the sake of the example."

"Nay, Miss Beers," replied the other, "they are common enough, and some cases I assure you are very painful to such of our profession as have any heart left, who are brought in contact with them."

"To those whose sole trust, whose only happiness is placed in worldly fortune, such things must come very hard; but not so hard, Mr. Ockham, to those who have resources above the reach of fortune."

"But when the hour of trial comes"—

"Nay, speak it out," she said, observing his hesitation; "you think that many who in their own fancied strength would not shrink, might be prostrated when the hour of trial comes. Doubtless it is so—but not, I think, not with those who have truly found the consolations of the gospel."

Charles Ockham was a religious man, and he knew the strength of the divine principle which the earnest and gentle being at his side so eloquently described. Yet her words left a heaviness upon his heart, for the shadows of coming events, to those nearest and dearest to him, darkened his spirit.

Having introduced to the reader these few of the many there assembled, we may retire and let the festival proceed according to its wont.

The hours wore away brightly and swiftly. At length, when the heavy chimes of midnight were heard, there was a movement among the guests, and one after another departed. The family speedily retired, and Colonel Beers was left alone.

With an agitated, uncertain step he walked up and down the empty saloon, and his countenance bore the same haggard, care-worn, and wild expression which had startled Hawkins as he passed the window hours ago. At times, when his eye rested for a moment on some splendid article of furniture, a shudder seemed to run through his noble frame, and once, twice, he groaned inwardly. At length large drops appeared upon his burning brow, and his step faltered upon the floor. He flung himself upon a sofa and shaded his eyes with his hands.

"It must come," he muttered at intervals—"and then, my God! the extravagance of this night, and of the thousand scenes like this; would I could hide my head in the earth, for I cannot even bear the bitterness of this hour—and this, *this* hour, what is it to what must be? No! I am resolved!"

He spake almost with the energy of desperation, and sprang to his feet. For a moment he did not notice the frail and trembling form which occupied the sofa near where he had last sat. The flickering light of the chandeliers fell dimly upon the pale upturned features of his daughter, who in her night-dress had stolen to the saloon, fearful for the health of her father. For the first time, over her young and loving heart there flashed the conviction that her parent was struggling with some great mental agony, and as she caught the fearful frown upon his brow, she screamed faintly, and, unknowing what she did, grasped his arm.

"Emily!" exclaimed her father, in the strong harsh tones in which he had last spoken—

"Oh, my father, forgive me," faltered out the agitated girl—"I feared you were unwell, for indeed you looked dreadfully pale this evening."

"Pale—did I seem agitated? Tell me, Emily, if that is what you mean—dreadfully pale. Nay, girl, your foolish fears must have alarmed you. I did not think," he added, fixing his dark, gleaming eye upon her counte-

nance, in the expression of which suspicion and pride were blended, "I did not think you were so observant, Emily!"

"Dear father, forgive me if I have offended you. If you had not taught me to love you as I have loved you, I might be less anxious about your happiness."

"Pshaw, my daughter, this is nonsense," he replied, while the gloom melted from his brow and a faint smile brightened his features. "If I was ill, it is over now that the heat and excitement of this business are past. These parties are a terrible infliction."

"They are, indeed," responded Emily—"aimless, fruitless, and without result, except in the extravagance and mental dissipation which they bring."

"Extravagance, indeed, my daughter, most ruinous extravagance; and you know in what trying times we are living. Should *we* fall, Emily, who would yield us respect and sympathy after such scenes?"

"All, I trust, whose sympathy is of any value, all whose respect is a gift worth possessing." The earnest, beautiful simplicity of her manner convinced Colonel Beers that the heart of his daughter prompted the sentiment which her lips uttered.

"We may have occasion to test the truth of what you say, Emily," he replied quickly and almost unconsciously, while his glance strayed for a moment from her features.

"Nay, father, I trust not."

"Trust in nothing but in heaven," he added with emotion, yet with bitterness. "*You*, Emily, have some share of sense remaining, and it is well that at this time we have met and alone, for I feel that the revelation ought to be made; but to your mother or your sister I cannot bring myself to speak of it. My daughter, I am standing on the brink of an abyss, and I scarcely know how to avert the ruinous stroke that threatens to overthrow me." He ceased to speak, for his proud, strong heart was struggling with his feelings; it prevailed, and he preserved his calmness.

Never were the gentle sustaining influences of true womanly character exerted to better effect than in that midnight interview. For a moment, in the manner, the tone, the involuntary exclamation of his daughter, there was something that told how hard it is for even the purest and most unselfish Christian mind, to receive with composure tidings like these. The struggle while it lasted was exquisitely painful, but it was brief. Pride, fear, and the sudden dread of poverty, more appalling because unknown before, gave way before the Christian resolution, the high and glorious energy of the woman, who felt that for others' sake, even while she *suffered*, she must be *strong*.

We would not rudely lift the veil from the privacies of a scene alike trying and alike blessed to the father and his child. But there were knees then bent for prayer which had seldom bent before; and when Colonel Beers kissed his daughter's cheek, and blessed her, his heart was as the heart of a child within him.

ART. IX.—A MANUAL OF GOLD AND SILVER COINS.

OF late years the subject of currency and coins has been of great interest to all classes of the community, arising mostly from the disastrous results, in a commercial point of view, that have attended the transition from a highly inflated paper currency to one approximating a specie basis. A consequence of the universal and almost exclusive use of bank emissions as a currency has been a means of preventing the community from becoming familiarized with the character, nature, and distinctive marks of coins, even those of our own country. Those of foreign countries, owing to their great distance, have not found our shores except in masses in the hands of large merchants. This state of affairs has of late undergone a change. The application of steam to ocean navigation has brought us more directly into communication with the markets of Europe, and the financial revolution which has rolled over the commercial world since 1837, has nearly crushed the banking system in this country, and is still in force. Many of the states are without banking institutions. With a population of 17,000,000, there is now less paper in circulation than in 1830, when the population was 12,000,000. The productive wealth of the country is now immensely greater than ever; but the paper system has received so severe a blow, that in all probability the future necessary increase in the circulating medium must consist of coined money. The difficulty attending this is the want of experience on the part of the public in the use of coins. At this opportune moment a work has made its appearance calculated to impart the experience of ages, and the skill of the most eminent men, in the minutest details, to every individual. We allude to "The Manual of Gold and Silver Coins" of all nations, struck within the past century; showing their history and legal basis, and their actual weight, fineness, and value, chiefly from original and recent assays. This work is the result of the combined labors of Messrs. Jacob R. Eckfeldt and William E. Dubois, assayers of the Mint of the United States, and is invaluable to dealers in money as well as in money's worth. The introduction of the work will give the best idea of its character, as follows:—

"A new book of coins seems to be required by the commercial world about once in twenty years. In 1806, the 'Traité des Monnaies' of M. Bonneville appeared, and perfected the science of real moneys to that date. When the second and improved edition of Dr. Kelley's 'Universal Cambist' was published (in 1821,) although based in part upon the great standard just referred to, it had numerous alterations to supply; new nations had sprung into existence, old ones had been blotted out, the whole retinue of Napoleonic sovereignties was transformed, and the world had another currency. So we, from this year of 1842, looking back upon the time which has elapsed since the Cambist appeared, perceive even greater changes in the constitution of nations, and the order of their coinage. This last monetary cycle has witnessed the origin of the kingdoms of Belgium and Greece in the old world, and in the new, the Empire of Brazil, and the whole catalogue of Spanish American republics, claiming a prominent place by the abundance of their gold and silver. Besides, there have been many and essential changes in the moneys of other countries; insomuch that of the money systems of the sixty nations treated of in our second chapter, only eighteen remain as they are found in Kelley's work, and

nine as in Bonneville's. Again, even if so great alterations had not ensued in the *laws* of coinage, experience proves that a watch must be kept upon the *practice*, and mint-assayers are continually testing the coins of foreign countries, choosing rather to trust to the cupel and balance, than to codes and allowances. From time to time, it devolves upon some of them to embody their results in a manual for public use. Since the opening of the nineteenth century, France has given the first standard of this sort, England has supplied the second, and a third is now offered from the United States.

"In this undertaking, singular facilities have been afforded us. We have operated on nearly all the kinds of coin current in the world for a hundred years past, and in the most important instances, upon considerable masses of them, and by frequent repetitions; so that a fair average has been attained. Out of 760 assays of coin stated in the second chapter, six-sevenths are original; the remainder, consisting chiefly of the older European and Oriental moneys, have been taken from Bonneville and Kelly, with a few from Becher. We have also had the advantage of an extensive correspondence, opened and conducted at our request by the present Director of the Mint, with foreign ministers and consuls of the United States. Nor would we forget the encouragement extended by the entire corps of our fellow-officers, to whose courtesy and worth it is a pleasure to bear testimony. Still, the labor of the enterprise has been such as to take from us, during three years past, most of the leisure which the daily and often urgent routine of official business allows.

"But we have aimed to do something more than to satisfy those who deal or take an interest in coins. The whole subject of *Bullion* demanded a methodical treatise; this has been attempted in the third chapter, and it is hoped will be found useful to those engaged in mining, or in trading with mining countries. In the fourth chapter, we have ventured to handle *Counterfeit Coins*. M. Chaudet, in his recent work, 'L'Art de l'Essayeur,' expresses his surprise that this subject has not found a place in the works of assayers, and makes a valuable contribution to it, in the chapter 'De l'examen des fausses monnaies françaises.' We have taken advantage of some of his suggestions, but not without laying the ground anew, and submitting the whole matter to a practical and patient investigation. Our fifth chapter contains an original and extensive series of results in the specific gravity of the precious metals, important alike to men of science and men of business. In the sixth chapter, we have sought to interest not only artists, but all who have a taste for engravings, by a brief history of the new process of machine engraving, and by numerous specimens of what it is able to achieve. The plates are fully described, and an attempt is made to acquaint ordinary readers with an easy method of distinguishing Oriental coins. In the appendix are statistics of various kinds relating to coinage, and tables of daily use to dealers in money, most of which are nowhere else accessible in print."

A very interesting and instructive description is then given of the principles of coinage, and the manufacture of coins. The subject is then taken up by countries, and each nation is treated of distinctly, in the order of governmental succession. The legal standards are then stated, in the national terms of the country and of our own. The annual product of precious metals, if any, and the amount of coinage, next receive some notice. Tables are then given of the gold and silver coins, serving the

inquiries of dealers and amateurs in coins, legislators, and persons of varied reading, desiring to extend their information in this direction. We have room only for a few of these tables, and therefore select those which are of the most immediate utility. Such are Great Britain, as follows:—

"*Great Britain.*—Our notice of the coinage of Great Britain will commence with the accession of George I. The various reigns since that date, have occurred in the following order: George I. 1714 to 1727; George II. to 1760; George III. to 1820; George IV. to 1830; William IV. to 1837; Victoria, from 1837, reigning sovereign.

"The basis of British money is the *pound sterling*, of 20 shillings. This was at first represented by the *guinea*, a gold coin, ordained in 1675, during the reign of Charles II.* After some years, from the depreciation of the silver coinage by wear and fraudulent arts, as well as from other causes, gold was thrown into market, at fluctuating and enhanced prices; so that the guinea, as compared with silver, varied from 20 to 28 shillings. This evil was not arrested until the third year of George I. (1717,) when, upon the recommendation of Sir Isaac Newton, then master of the Mint, the guinea was rated at 21 shillings, and has so continued ever since.

"The pound sterling had therefore no representative in any single coin, until the great era in British moneys, the coinage law of 1816. The guinea and its parts were then discontinued, and the *sovereign*, of 20 shillings, with subdivisions, substituted. The relative proportion of weight and value being preserved, the guinea continued to circulate at 21 shillings, though it ceased to be coined.

"In the same year, an alteration was effected in the silver coinage. The denominations, from the *crown* downwards, were maintained as before; but the old series was called in, and recoined at a reduced weight. The profit to government by this operation was not so much the object in view, as to give to the silver coinage a less intrinsic value than the gold, and thus to make the latter the only measure of value; the former to be used merely for making change, in the domestic circulation.† Silver coins are a legal tender only to the extent of 40 shillings at a time.

"Before proceeding to state in detail the legal regulations of the coin, a few general observations upon the metallic currency of this empire, may be in place.

"A very prominent and peculiar feature, is the vast preponderance of the gold over the silver coinage; and this, for a century before it became the settled policy of the nation. The causes which operated to produce this result, could not be explained in a work like the present. We only notice the fact, that from the accession of Queen Anne (1702) to the end of 1840, the gold coinage amounted to 160 millions sterling, while that of silver was but 12½ millions. For the last twenty years, ending with 1840, the coinage of gold was 52 millions nearly, and of silver four millions. In every other country, the preference seems to be given to silver, as the specie basis, whether gold is a concurrent legal tender or not.

"In general, it is noticed that a country does not recoin its own money, except upon a change of standard. A memorable exception took place in England, in 1774. The unskilful style in which, confessedly, the gold

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* Ruding's Annals of the British Coinage.

† This policy was brought before the public, eleven years before (1805,) by Lord Liverpool, in his Treatise on the Coins of the Realm.

coins had for a long time been executed, exposed them to the nefarious arts by which coins are diminished in weight. From these causes, as well as from ordinary wear, the circulation had become so depreciated, that it was judged necessary to call in all the gold coins below a certain weight, and recoin them, at the full standard. To this effect, an act of Parliament was passed in that year, providing also for making good the deficiency to holders of light coin, from the public treasury. This famous recoinage commenced in that year, and appears to have been in progress until 1788.*

"Another memorable event, in the monetary history of England, was the total suspension of silver coinage, at the mint, from 1788 to 1816—a period of twenty-nine years; and that at a time when such coin was never more needed. The reason was simply that silver was not valued high enough by law, in proportion to gold, and therefore went to the market instead of the mint. This, in its turn, was brought about by various causes, not the least of which was the policy of the French Republic, which exchanged *assignats* for silver, wherever it was to be had. In the single year of 1792, there was drawn away from England near three millions of ounces.†

"There was an obvious remedy for this evil, but the times did not admit of its application. So far from it, the scarcity of silver was only a precursor to a similar scarcity of gold. In the protracted wars of Europe, of which England had her full share, there was a continual necessity for remittances abroad, by the government. These were almost wholly in bullion, and were procured from the Bank of England. In 1797, the drain of specie had been carried to such an extent, that only a million and a quarter sterling remained in the vaults of that institution, and a suspension of specie payments was the necessary consequence. This suspension continued until 1821.

"Until the general pacification of Europe, there was no opportunity for reforming the monetary code, and establishing it upon a firm basis. Meanwhile the silver coinage, the need of which was most urgently felt for the smaller purposes of traffic, was supplied in a semi-legal way, by the issue of *Tokens*. In 1804, the Bank of England, with the approbation of his majesty's council, effected a recoinage of two millions of Spanish dollars, at the mint of Mr. Boulton, near Birmingham. The pieces were stamped with appropriate devices, with a valuation of five shillings. The Bank of Ireland resorted to the same expedient, making the dollar a token for six shillings Irish.* By act of Parliament of the same year, these issues were so far legalized as to make it felony to counterfeit them.

"As these larger pieces did not supply the deficiency, smaller ones were issued subsequently by the banks, and by local corporations; and as will

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* The whole coinage, 1774 to 1788, was eighteen and a half millions sterling: probably three fourths of this was recoinage. The deficit of weight was an expense to the government of a little over half a million. Ruding, vol. i.

† Marsh, quoted by Ruding, ii. 499. These assignats, or state bonds, were founded upon the landed property taken from the clergy. In five years, the issue amounted to 36,000 millions of francs. Eventually they were received at one seventieth of their nominal value, in payment for public lands. Thiers' French Revolution.

* It is stated by Ruding, that the silver coins in Ireland had by this time become so light, that twenty-one shillings were not intrinsically worth more than nine. As 12 pence English are equal to 13 pence Irish, the dollars of the Bank of Ireland "went further" than those of the other institution.

presently appear, at an increased reduction of real value. In 1805, the Bank of Ireland issued pieces of ten pence, and five pence, coined from dollar silver, professedly at the rate of sixty-five pence to the dollar. In 1811, the English country banks, and mercantile houses, put in circulation their own shillings and sixpences; and from the same year to 1815, the currency was further supplied by tokens of three shillings, and one and a half shillings, from the Bank of England.* The bank tokens, and doubtless the others also, were eventually redeemed at the prices stamped upon them.

"During all this period, the gold coinage was carried on at intervals, but in very reduced amount.†

"In 1816, peace having been re-established, and trade restored to its due course, the state of the coinage was made a subject of legislation, and, as already observed, important changes in both the gold and silver coin, were provided by act of Parliament.

"Dr. Kelly remarks, that—"In the history of the English mint, the coinage of 1816 will be memorable, not only on account of the important alteration then made in the monetary system, but also for the great accommodation afforded to the public. Thus, after a long period of disorder in the currency, the new silver coins were exchanged for the old, on very liberal terms; and although they amounted to several millions of pounds sterling, the exchange was effected simultaneously throughout the kingdom. The supplies too, from the mint, have been since continued, to all parts of the British dominions, with a degree of regularity and despatch, unknown at any former period.'‡

"The following are the legal rates of coinage, before and since 1816:

"From a pound troy of gold, 22 carats or 916⅔ thousandths fine, 44½ guineas were coined; and since 1816, 46⅔ sovereigns; the various divisions or multiples being in proportion.

"From a pound troy of silver, $11\frac{1}{10}$ parts in 12 fine, or 925 thousandths, 62 shillings were coined; under the new system, 66 shillings; other denominations in proportion. This advance is equal to 6½ per cent, upon the old coinage. The new coins, being rated higher than the market price of silver, are effectually kept within the realm; occasional specimens only finding their way abroad.

"From the above rates, it is found that the full weight of the guinea is 129½ grains, and the sovereign, 123⅓ grains. But if the former weigh 128, or the latter 122¾, they are still a legal tender, at their nominal rates. The full weight of the old crown, is 464½ grains, and of the new, 436½ grains.§ The crown is equal to five shillings, or 60 pence.

"The remedy of the mint, or allowed deviation, is, for gold, 12 grains per lb. in weight, and $\frac{1}{12}$ carat in fineness; for silver, 1 dwt. per lb. in weight, and $\frac{1}{144}$th part in fineness.

"England should now be ranked among the silver producing countries,

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* This system of tokens began with copper, in 1788, in default of lawful coinage. Ten years after, the private coinage of copper was arrested.

† A new mint was erected in London, between the years 1806–10. In Ruding's Annals, iii. 523, it is stated that the cost of the premises was £7,062, cost of building and machinery, £261,978: total, £269,040.

‡ Kelly's Cambist, Introd.

§ The fractions are not extended to an arithmetical nicety.

since the recent improvement in parting argentiferous lead ores. By the process of Pattinson, three ounces of silver in a ton of lead, will pay the expense of its extraction. This proportion is about one part in ten thousand. England and Scotland raise annually from 35,000 to 40,000 tons of lead, or about four-sevenths of the whole produce of Europe. In one year (1835) the argentiferous lead, containing about 8½ ounces per ton, yielded 140,000 ounces of silver. In the same year, the amount of 36,000 ounces was raised in Cornwall, from silver ores; making the whole production 176,000 ounces, worth, if fine, about 227,000 dollars.*

GOLD COINS.

Denomination.	*Date.*	*Reign.*	*Weight. Grs.*	*Finen'ss. Thous.*	*Value.* D. C. M.
Guinea . .	1719	George I.	127	914	5 00
do. . . .	1727–60	George II.	127	915	5 00 5
Five guineas .	1729	do.	644	913	25 32 2
Guinea . .	1760–85	George III.	127.5	915.5	5 02 6
do. . . .	1785–1809	do.	128	915.5	5 04 6
do. . . .	1813	do.	128.3	915.5	5 05 9
Seven shillings	1806–13	do.	42	915.5	1 65 6
Half guinea .	1801–13	do.	64	915.5	2 52 3
Quarto do. .	1762	do.	32	915.5	1 26 2
Sovereign . .	1817–20	do.†	122.5	915.5	4 83
do. . . .	1820–29	George IV.	122.7	915.5	4 83 8
Half do. . .	1820–29	do.	61.2	915.5	2 41 3
Double do. .	1826	do.	246.5	915.5	9 71 9
Sovereign . .	1831–36	William IV.	123	915.5	4 85
Half do. . .	1831–36	do.	61.3	915.5	2 41 7
Sovereign . .	1838–39	Victoria.	123.3	915.5	4 86 1

SILVER COINS.

Denomination.	*Date.*	*Reign.*	*Weight. Grs.*	*Finen'ss. Thous.*	*Value.* D. C. M.
Shilling . .	1721–23	George I.	87	930	21 8
Half crown .	1745–46	George II.	218	930	54 6
Shilling . .	1727–46	do.	90	930	22 5
do. . . .	1787	George III.	92	926	22 9
Half crown‡ .	1817–19	do.	215	930	53 9
Shilling . .	1816–17	do.	86	934	21 6
Sixpence . .	1817–20	do.	43	930	10 8

* Ure's Dict. Arts, Mines, &c.; London, 1839.

† The gold coins are remarkably uniform in fineness, but below the legal standard, about one thousandth. In weight, as they are found in circulation, 1,000 sovereigns will vary from 5,111 to 5,124 dwts. The par value of the pound sterling is therefore $4 84 as near as may be; and our dollar is equal to 49.6 pence. Sterling gold is worth 94.6 cents per dwt.

‡ The almost uniform result of 930, being five thousandths higher than lawful standard, is found by humid assay. The old method of assaying silver is said to be still in use in the British Mint; but the fineness seems to be falling to a humid standard.

SILVER COINS.—*Continued.*

Denomination.	*Date.*	*Reign.*	*Weight. Grs.*	*Finen'ss. Thous.*	*Value.* D. C. M.
Crown . . .	1822	George IV.	435	930	1 09
Half crown .	1820–26	do.	216	930	54 1
Shilling . .	1820–29	do.	86.5	930	21 7
Half crown .	1836	William IV.	216	930	54 1
Shilling . .	1831	do.	87	930	21 8
do. . . .	1838–40	Victoria.	87	925	21 7
Sixpence . .	1838	do.	43	925	10 7
Fourpence* .	1838	do.	29	925	7 2

We have not included the *Tokens* in the above table. They possess now no commercial importance, but for the sake of their historical interest, and for the gratification of those who retain them as specimens, a few particulars are annexed.

They are evidently coined from dollar silver, being of the fineness of 896 to 901 thousandths. The following varieties have been examined here:

Denomination.	*Date.*	*By whom issued.*	*Weight. Grs.*	*Value.* D. C. M.
5 shillings . .	1804	Bank of England.	411	99 7
6 shillings Irish	1804	Bank of Ireland.	409	99 2
30 pence Irish	1808	do.	190	46
10 pence Irish	1813	do.	53	12 8
3 shillings . .	1811–12	Bank of England.	228	55 2
1 shilling 6 pence	1812–15	do.†	115	27 7

* There are lower denominations of threepence, twopence, and 1½ pence, and penny, which are coined for royal distribution, and are called *maundy money.*

† Besides which there were numerous shillings issued in 1811 by the country banks, and by merchants of Bristol, York, and other places, weighing from 60 to 68 grains, and worth 14½ to 16½ cents.

Art. X.—PREFERRED CREDITORS.

OUGHT CERTAIN CREDITORS TO BE PREFERRED IN MAKING ASSIGNMENTS?

In making an assignment of one's effects, it is a common practice to classify claims, by preferring some to others. This is done, of course, in accordance with the laws of the state in which the assignment is made; otherwise, the instrument would be void. It seems to us that the morality of this act is seldom duly considered. We cannot escape the charge of immorality by the plea that civil law does not condemn the practice. Human law sometimes sanctions acts which are at variance with the moral law. We are disposed, however, to believe that the ground of this practice has not been sufficiently examined, and that it is through inadvertence, rather than improper design, that it has hitherto been followed. But,

waiving general remarks, we will examine the question, as briefly as possible, in its application to borrowed money and endorsements. Relative to assignments, the exclamation is sometimes made with evident astonishment: "*Not provide for borrowed money and endorsements? Why, it is as bad as theft!*" Whether they who utter such language, or they who adopt the sentiment, but convey it in a mild form, have given to the subject a proper consideration, we are rather disposed to doubt.

It may be urged, and with much apparent force, that a man should *return* borrowed money in preference to *paying a debt:* for borrowed money may not be regarded in the light of a debt; and the money should be returned for precisely the same reason that any other borrowed article ought to be—namely, *because it was borrowed.* The word *borrowed* means, "to take from another by request or consent, with a view to use the thing taken for a time, *and return it.*" That is, the thing itself is to be returned. It is not a matter of trade, or of speculation. No debt, in the usual sense of the term, is hereby contracted. A moral obligation, indeed, rests upon the borrower to return the thing borrowed; and the lender also has a legal claim upon the borrower for the loan. But the claim is unlike that where a sale of merchandise is made. That is a matter of trade, with all its attendant risks; and, in a certain sense, the seller is a copartner with the buyer, and shares with him the profit or loss of the bargain. He puts certain property into common stock, and receives a dividend with other creditors. The buyer, indeed, agrees to pay for the goods, and the agreement is absolute and unconditional upon its face; but it is nevertheless subject to many contingencies which frequently occur in the course of business, and which prevent the fulfilment of contracts. Not so with a loan of money. Money is not an article of merchandise; it is merely a representative of property, and it is a solecism in finance to regard it as otherwise. If you loan your carriage, it is expected that the carriage itself will be returned; nor can any contingency happen whereby a creditor of the borrower may acquire a claim to the carriage; and you would have precisely the same right to demand your money as you would your carriage, when found in the possession of another.

A proper distinction may be made between this case and that of a loan by a bank or any other corporation. In the latter case the bank ascertains what is the pecuniary credit of the borrower, and demands ample security for the loan, and is paid for it. In the former case regard is had not so much to the pecuniary credit of the borrower as to his character for integrity. The latter is a matter of business in the technical sense; the former a matter of honor, of personal favor. The one depends upon the contingencies of trade; the other mainly depends upon the common honesty of the borrower.

This seems to be the only plausible reason which can be offered in favor of the practice, so far as borrowed money is concerned; and we have endeavored to present it in as favorable a light as possible. It is also urged that when a man loans his name, he ordinarily does it as a mere matter of accommodation, for which he receives no pecuniary benefit; unlike the case of those who sell goods and obtain a profit upon them. He loans his name simply for convenience, and *therefore* ought to be preferred in the assignment.

Now we think that neither claim should be preferred on the ground of justice. The loan of money gives a credit to an individual which he

might not otherwise have; and it oftentimes delays an assignment which justice to creditors requires should have been made at the time of the loan. The loan, therefore, instead of being a benefit to the borrower, is an injury to him—and to his creditors especially, if the borrowed money be preferred. So of a man who endorses for another. He loans his name in order that the borrower may obtain credit. Without the name, the promiser would be without credit. The endorser is in fact the one who is credited, and not the promiser. He is not indeed the endorser in every case where the promiser gets credit; but his being so in a single instance helps the promiser to a credit which he could not otherwise enjoy. The fact of the endorsement will not be likely to be so generally known as the fact of the sale; and this latter fact may secure to the promiser a credit which will enable him to buy of others without an endorser. The only difference between the two cases cited is, that the fact of the loan of money is not so apparent as is that of the endorsement. But the truth unquestionably is, that both the lender and the endorser are, in a very important sense, copartners with the promiser in the business; and so far from being entitled to preference, it may with much reason be urged, are only entitled to what may remain after all the creditors are paid. A man may be a bankrupt to-day, and yet pay all his notes by the aid of borrowed money. And every day he continues in a state of bankruptcy renders it worse for his creditors when at length he fails. And does not the fact of his paying his notes promptly inspire confidence in his ability to pay, and give him a credit to which he is not justly entitled? And will it be said that those who furnish him with credit, whereby any are deceived as to his actual standing, can justly claim a preference over other creditors in the distribution of his effects?

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

MATHEMATICAL PROBLEM ANSWERED.

We have received from several correspondents answers to the mathematical problem proposed in our July number, but from a press of other matter we have been obliged to defer their publication to the present time. The desire of the proposer of the problem was to asertain the *speediest* method of solution—for it is evident that sufficient data are given for an ordinary arithmetical solution. Of the various answers, those from R. B. S., and "*Charleston*," are the readiest and most satisfactory. T. J., C. C. C., and J. L., have also given correct answers, but the processes they have adopted are not so brief. The answer from G. B. B., though correct, is evidence merely that he has *guessed shrewdly*, but affords no rule for the solution of problems of a similar nature. As a compensation for our delay, and as an acknowledgment to our correspondents for their favors, we publish all the solutions we have received, and in the order we have named them above.

In reply to the remark of C. C. C., that "it is not stated whether the differences in the prices are differences between the values at the time of their consignment, or differences between their values as they were sold," we would remark that the problem, as stated, implies no depreciation from the market price; but that in order to solve a problem of

the supposed character, it would only be necessary to determine the rate or per centage of depreciation.

The simplest solution which is given from which a rule may be constructed, is this:—Ascertain the amount of excess over the minimum price, which divide by the total quantity; the result will be the difference between the average and minimum price; and from this construct a scale of prices.

It will be seen that T. J. and C. C. C. have each proposed questions, to which we solicit answers. We would, however, remind our correspondents of the necessity of paying the postage of their communications.

New York, July 19, 1842.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:

SIR:—You will be pleased to insert the following answer in your next, provided you have not previously had similar ones:

Rule.—Ascertain the difference of value between the lowest quality, and each of the others separately. Multiply each difference thus obtained by the quantity to which it applies, and the aggregate of these products, if divided by the total quantity, will give the difference of value between the average price and the value of the most inferior quality: knowing which, the others are easily found.

Let me apply the rule to the problem in question.

The 6th is worth over the 7th				½	cent per pound,	which multiplied by	720	gives	360
" 5th	"	"	"	1¼	"	"	"	"	940	" 1175
" 4th	"	"	"	1½	"	"	"	"	300	" 450
" 3d	"	"	"	1¾	"	"	"	"	1510	" 2642½
" 2d	"	"	"	2⅛	"	"	"	"	160	" 340
" 1st	"	"	"	3⅛	"	"	"	"	820	" 2562½
								Aggregate,		7530

which, if divided by 5020, the total quantity, will give a quotient of 1½—the same being difference of value as before mentioned. Therefore,

The	7th	is worth	13¼	cents, (being 14¼ the average, less 1½)
"	6th	"	13¾	"
"	5th	"	14½	"
"	4th	"	14¾	"
"	3d	"	15	"
"	2d	"	15⅜	"
"	1st	"	16⅜	"

Yours, &c., R. B. S****.

II.—A solution to mathematica problem in the July number of Hunt's Magazine:

Charleston, July 21, 1842.

A	7	570				
	6	720	by	½	360	
	5	940	...	1¼	1175	
	4	300	...	1½	450	
	3	1510	...	1¾	2642	
	2	160	...	2⅛	340	
	1	820	...	3⅛	2563	

5020)7530(150
5020

25100
25100

.....

Average price is 14 75
less 1 50

13 25

III.—Answer to question on adjusting sales.

The increase on the lowest price is as follows :—

½	per yard on	720	yards is	3 60
1¼	.....	940	...	11 75
1½	.....	300	...	4 50
1¾	.....	1510	...	25 62.5
2⅛	.....	160	...	3 40
3¼	.....	820	...	26 42.5

Total increase,.....$75 30.0 which, deducted from gross amount of sales, viz :—740 45=665 15 Dividing this by 50 20=13¼ minimum price,

Then,	570	at	13¼	75 52.5
	720	...	13¾	99 00
	940	...	14½	136 30
	300	...	14¾	44 25
	1510	...	15	226 50
	160	...	15⅜	24 60
	820	...	16⅛	134 27.5
	5020	...	14¼=$740	45.0

Question for bookkeepers.

A. & B. constitute a firm, A. B. & Co.

A. has received from firm, $78 56.

And paid to do. $286 36.

B. has received from firm $120, and paid to do., $5 99.

A. owed B. on old account, $436 00.

They bought goods which cost $159 30, and sold for 120, on which they are to share loss equally.

What must the one pay the other to settle the whole, and close accounts with each other? T. J.

IV.—*To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine :*

Sir—In the July number of the Magazine is the following problem :

A consignee receives from several consignors lots of a certain article, containing different quantities, and of different values, as follows :—

1st lot	from	A.	of	820	lbs.,	worth	1	cent	per lb. more than the	second,.....	3⅛
2d	"	B.	"	160	"	"	⅜	"	"	third, ...	2⅛
3d	"	C.	"	1510	"	"	¼	"	"	fourth, ...	1¼
4th	"	D.	"	300	"	"	¼	"	"	fifth, ...	1¼
5th	"	E.	"	940	"	"	¾	"	"	sixth, ...	1¼
6th	"	F.	"	720	"	"	½	"	"	seventh.....	½
7th	"	G.	"	570							

He sells the whole 5020 lbs. at an average price of 14¼ cents per lb. How shall he apportion the price?

It is not stated whether the differences in the prices are differences between the values at the time of their consignment, or differences between their values as they were sold. If the former be meant, I should think that the problem could not have a satisfactory answer; if the latter, the solution is easy. In the last column above, I have put the excess of each price over the least of the prices. Multiply the number of pounds in each lot by the respective excess as shown in the last column; add these products together; subtract their sum from the price at which the whole quantity was sold, and divide the remainder by the whole number of pounds. The quotient will be the least price. From this find the other prices; and these multiplied into their respective quantities, will give the respective shares of the consignors.

The rule appears long in words, but the process is simple. In the problem given—

720	× ½ =	360			5020
940	× 1¼	1175			14¼
300	× 1½	450			
1510	× 1¾	2642.5			74045
160	× 2⅛	340			7530
820	× 3⅜	2562.5			
	Total,	7530		5020)66515	

13¼ the price of the seventh lot.

570 × 13¼ =	7552.5	or $75	52.5	G.'s share.
720 × 13¾	9900	" 99	00	F.'s share.
940 × 14½	13630	" 136	30	E.'s share.
300 × 14¾	4425	" 44	25	D.'s share.
1510 × 15	22650	" 226	50	C.'s share.
160 × 15⅞	2460	" 24	6	B.'s share.
820 × 16⅛	13427.5	" 134	27.5	A.'s share.
5020 × 14¼		$740	45	Total price of the goods.

If I understand the problem, this seems to me to solve it easily.

I would propose the following problem for solution.

Having, on the 1st of January, 1842, $16,150 in my hands, I wish to know which is the more profitable on the whole, (regard being had to profit alone, and not to the permanency of the investment,) to invest this sum in six per cent stock at $85, (per share of $100,) redeemable 1st January, 1863; or, in seven per cent stock at $95 (per share of $100,) redeemable 1st January, 1856; it being supposed that money is at all times worth and can be loaned for seven per cent, simple interest; that the interest in both cases is payable annually; and that both principal and interest are and will be paid punctually, without fear or danger of *repudiation*. If either, which of these is the better investment; and by how much at the present time, i. e. January 1st, 1842? C. C. C.

—

Carrollton, Ky., July 13, 1842.

V.—*To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine.*

One of your correspondents in the July number of your work proposes the following question:

"A consignee having received from various consigners several parcels of the same commodity, of different qualities, and known or appreciable difference in market value, and having sold the whole at an average price, wishes to apportion this price to the several owners, so that each may receive his equitable share. Required the simplest and readiest solution."

Then follows an example, which I shall state thus: The consignee receives from the

1st	820 lbs.					
2d	160 "	worth 1 cent less per lb. than the 1st,				
3d	1,510 "	do.	⅛	do.	do.	2d.
4th	300 "	do.	¼	do.	do.	3d.
5th	940 "	do.	¼	do.	do.	4th.
6th	720 "	do.	¼	do.	do.	5th.
7th	570 "	do.	½	do.	do.	6th.

5,020 lbs. in all, which is sold at average price of 14¼ cents.

In the first place I proceed to find how much more all the consignments would be worth were they of the same quality of the first or best.

The 2d	160 lbs.	is worth	1	cent	less	than	the 1st.....	$1 60
3d	1,510 "	do.	1⅛	do.	do.	do.	do.....	20 76½
4th	300 "	do.	1¼	do.	do.	do.	do.....	4 87½
5th	940 "	do.	1⅜	do.	do.	do.	do.....	17 62½
6th	720 "	do.	2⅛	do.	do.	do.	do.....	18 90
7th	570 "	do.	3⅛	do.	do.	do.	do.....	17 81¼
								81 57½

Now this sum (81 57½) being divided by 5,020, the whole quantity of all the consignments, will give the excess in price of the first lot over the average price of the whole, viz, 1⅝ cents; and the price of the first lot should be 16⅜ cents, the second 15⅞, the third 15, the fourth 14¼, the fifth 14½, the sixth 13¾, the seventh 13¼.

Let us take another example.

A merchant receives from different consigners a quantity of flour. From the

1st	164	bbls.					
2d	140	"	worth	12½	cents per bbl.	*more*	than the 1st.
3d	115	"	do.	25	do.	do.	2d.
4th	612	"	do.	6¼	do.	do.	3d.

And sells the 1,031 bbls. at an average price of $5 75. Now let us find how much less all the consignments would be worth, were they of the same quality as the first.

The 2d would be worth		140	bbls. a	12½	cents less	.....	$17 50
3d	do.	115	do.	37½	do.	.....	43 12½
4th	do.	612	do.	43¾	do.	.....	267 75
							328 37½

Now this sum, or perhaps I ought to say difference, (it being the difference between the real and supposed value of the whole lot,) being divided by 1,031, the whole quantity of the flour, gives the excess of the average price ($5 75) over the price of the first lot, it being about 31¾ cents; which will make the first lot worth $5 43⅜, the second $5 55⅝, the third $5 80⅝, the fourth $5 86¼, very nearly.

One more example and I am done.

A merchant buys a quantity of molasses. Of the

1st	quality	317	galls.					
2d	do.	120	"	worth	2½	per cent less	than	the 1st.
3d	do.	230	"	do.	5	do.	do.	do.
4th	do.	105	"	do.	10	do.	do.	do.

In all 772 bbls. at an average price of 20 cents. He wishes to know how much each quality cost him.

In the first place I would find how much less the quantity would be for the same amount of purchase money, provided all the molasses was of the same quality as the first lot. Thus:

2½	per cent	deduction on	120	galls. is	3	galls.
5	do.	do.	130	do.	11½	do.
10	do.	do.	105	do.	10½	do.

Showing that if a deduction of 25 gallons be made from the whole quantity, (772 galls.) the remainder (747 galls.) will be the quantity the same money ought to purchase of the quality of the first lot. Dividing the purchase money ($154 40) by 747 will give the price per gallon of the first lot, and that found, the prices of the other qualities immediately follow.

In the last example, if the third lot upon comparison with the second had been 5 per cent inferior to that instead of the first, and the fourth 10 (or any other) per cent inferior to the third, their solution becomes more complicated, but, as the reader will readily perceive, it can be accomplished on the same principle.

Arithmetical questions of this kind, and indeed of every other, can be very much abridged by performing many of the operations mentally. J. L.

Mr. Editor:—To the question that appeared in your last publication, I send the answer. Should any have reached you done in a less complex manner, this you may consign to "the tomb of the Capulets;" if not, pray give it a corner.

VI.	1st lot from	A	of 820	lbs.	a	16¾	$134	27½
	2d do.	B	of 160	"	a	15¾	24	60
	3d do.	C	of 1,510	"	a	15	226	50
	4th do.	D	of 300	"	a	14¾	44	25
	5th do.	E	of 940	"	a	14½	136	30
	6th do.	F	of 720	"	a	13¼	99	
	7th do.	G	of 570	"	a	13¼	75	52½
	Total,		5,020				$740	45

14¾ average price.

4)15,060

3,765
70,280

74,045

Explanation: 1st. There are 7 consignees, consequently the 4th, or D, is the average number; 300 lbs. at the average price of 14¾ cents per lb. are worth $44 25.

2d. Seeing that 14¾ cents is the price for 300 lbs., I increase the prices of the three preceding numbers, and diminish the prices of the last three, viz, E F G, in the same proportion or rate as stated in the question.

3d. To prove this, multiply the total amount of the consignment (5,020 lbs.) by the average price (14¾ cents) as per statement.

G. B. B.

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COMMERCE OF MOROCCO.

The following particulars of the trade, currency, tariff, &c., of Morocco, are derived from a letter of Thomas N. Carr, late United States consul for Morocco, addressed to a gentleman in New York.

The imports, as registered for the year 1834, amount to $1,750,000; the illicit or contraband trade may justly be set down at $400,000 more: total imports $2,150,000. Exports $1,600,000. Grand total of imports and exports for this year $3,750,000.

For the year 1841 the imports, according to the best calculations, were $3,102,750; illicit trade, mostly carried on under English colors, $766,150: total imports $3,868,906. Amount of exports for the same period $2,800,000. Grand total of imports and exports for the year 1841, $6,665,906; thus showing an increase over the trade of 1834 to the amount of $2,915,906.

The trade of the United States with this country for the year 1841, amounted in all but to $120,000. Imports $70,000, exports $50,000; decrease from the last year $9,500.

The trade of Europe may be estimated as follows: France $824,000; Spain $40,000; Portugal $30,000; Sardinia, Belgium, Holland, in all $70,000 more; and the balance of $5,581,906 falls to Great Britain as her portion of the trade of this country.

From the above table an estimate can be made of the importance to the United States of making some efforts to increase her trade with this country, which by our present difficulties has been entirely broken up, and of the great inducements that offer to the American merchant to engage in a traffic hitherto regarded by them of but too little consequence.

Since the war of 1812, with Great Britain, the trade of the United States with Morocco has been gradually declining, and that of Great Britain increasing in a rapid ratio, until that nation may now be said to have monopolized the entire trade; which monopoly she is exerting herself to maintain by her political influence, and her admirable consular establishment on the coast. The articles of import, as will be seen from the list presented, are some of them of a kind the produce and manufacture of the United

States. The unbleached and bleached cottons, nankeens, blue and white, have the preference over those of the manufacture of Great Britain, which has caused the British trader to finger our stamps in many cases, and to pass off their goods as American. Under our present treaty with Morocco, it is quite impossible that we can see a different state of things. It affords no protection to the property of our merchant, and consequently offers but little inducement to the capitalist to engage in the trade. The present is a most propitious moment for a negotiation with the emperor, which, if availed of, cannot but remove this objection, and secure for our trade great and important immunities. It is also essential that our agencies on the coast should be reorganized, and placed upon a different footing from what they are at present. At the port of Mogadore the United States should have a vice-consul, responsible to the government for the just performance of his duties, and not allowed to engage in the trade of the country. This plan was in part adopted by the younger Adams, in 1824, but for some unknown cause was shortly after abandoned. The expense of salary would be but small, and the advantages immediate and important. This agent should be intrusted with a superintendence over the other agencies on the coast, as far north as Saffy, which are generally intrusted to the keeping of Jews; and all the papers and shipping documents should be sent to him for examination, which would prevent a recurrence of those great abuses which have for years existed, and, under the present system, must continue to exist.

The port charges are not equal throughout the empire, but vary at the different ports of entry. At Mogadore, the charges amount to forty-three Spanish dollars, which includes all dues levied on all vessels, without regard to tonnage. At Mazagan and Rhabat they are twenty-nine dollars.

The exchangeable values of the moneys current in most of the districts are established by the emperor, but the weights and measures vary at the ports north of Mogadore.

The following are the principal divisions of the currency:—

16 okeats are equal to 100 cents; the Spanish dollar (pillared) is the standard and most current coin for this value.

10 okeats are equal to 62½ cents; this is the Morocco ducat.

1 okeat, or 4 moozunats, are equal to 6 cents.

1 moozunat, or 6 floos, (copper coin,) are equal to 1,5625‖10,000.

In weights, 100 pounds Morocco amounts to 119 pounds English. The pound of Morocco is derived from the collective weight of 20 Spanish dollars.

The cubit for cloth equals 21 6.10 inches.

1 suar wheat, or eight barroubas, equals 3 3.5 bushels, and averages in weight about 212 pounds English.

Grain has no fixed standard, but is left with the market inspector, and differs in nearly every district; but the acknowledged standard measure of grain for exportation is the Spanish fanija, five of which are equal to eight bushels.

Measures for liquids are not used; oil is sold by weight.

Tariff of Duties levied on the Importation of Goods, the Growth or Produce of Foreign Countries, at this Port.

On all articles, excepting particularly named, 10 per cent in natura.

Buenos Ayres Hides, per 100 lbs	$3 40
Cotton, raw,	5 00
Iron and Steel, in bars,	2 00
Silk, raw,	50 00

Prompt payment is demanded on these import duties, without any allowance for discount.

Prohibited Articles.—Cochineal, brimstone, or sulphur, fire-arms, sword and dagger blades, powder and lead.

Export Duties on the Growth and Produce of the Empire of Morocco.

Corn.—Wheat, per Spanish fanija,	$1 25
Maize and Beans,	50
Barley—*Prohibited.*	

Prompt payment is exacted in the exportation of corn, and no discount allowed.

Almonds, sweet, per 100 lbs.	$2 10
Do. bitter,	2 10
Dates,	3 10
Feathers, Ostrich, assorted, pound,	3 10
Gum Arabic, 100 lbs.	2 10

Credit is given, or twenty-five per cent discount is allowed to the merchant for prompt payment of the export duties on other articles.

Euphorbium,	$2 60
Sandrac,	3 10
Hemp,	3 10
Ivory, (Elephant's Teeth,)	4 10
Oil, Olive,	3 10
Orchilla Weed,	4 10
Skins—Calf,	3 10
Goat, per 100 skins,	5 00
Sheep in the Wool,	8 00
Seeds—Annis, Canary, Cummin, Ternin, Gingellon, and Worm, 100 lbs.	1 10
Wax, Bees',	10 10
Wool in the Grease,	4 10
Wool, washed, 2 lbs. gunpowder in addition on every 100 lbs. of washed or unwashed Wool,	8 10

Articles of Import.—India long-cloths; blue-black long-cloths; brown cotton; woollen cloth, fine; do. do. common; do. do. coarse; nankeens, blue and yellow; shirting, India dimity; muslins, cotton; silk handkerchiefs, thread; cotton velvet; gold lace; bandannas; tea; loaf sugar; pepper; cloves; cassia; ginger; alum; arsenic; gum Benjamin; quicksilver; iron; tin, in bars; tin plates; brass plates; nails; needles; card wire; hardware; earthenware; coral; china; crushed sugar.

Remarks.—The amount of brown cotton (unbleached) imported in 1841, amounted to the sum of $1,072,500, principally all of the manufacture of Great Britain. Of the above articles, the most in demand are muslins, long-cloths, nankeens, cottons, sugar, tea, shirting, and India dimities.

AGRICULTURAL AND MINERAL RICHES OF SPAIN.

AGRICULTURAL.

Lands, waste and others, 45,000,000 fanegadas, at $10,		$450,000,000
Lands belonging to communes, corporations, &c., 4,224,800 fanegadas, at $10,		42,000,000
Woods and forests, besides those required for the recreation of the royal family, 300,000 fanegadas, at $10,		3,000,000
Public duty on waters, abrevaderat, &c., or absolute dominion,		50,000,000
Balance remaining from "Obras Pias,"		38,000,000
		$583,248,000

MINERAL.

Mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, antimony, sulphur, salt, ochre, cobalt, &c.	$60,000,000	
Mines of lead, tin, alum, plombago, vermi, marble, &c.	75,000,000	
Mines of quicksilver, Almaden included,	58,000,000	
		$193,000,000

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

[Brought down to August 20.]

The past month has been one of great interest. Many important events have transpired affecting the commercial world to a greater or less extent; although, from the low state of prices and the inertness of trade, the markets present no material alteration in consequence. The agitation of the tariff question and the uncertainty of affairs at Washington, together with the equivocal nature of the regulations under which entries are now made, have exerted a great influence in retarding the return of commercial activity. The goods entered are small in amount, and very generally under protest, with the view to test the legality of the regulations under which the executive officers are now acting. The customs paid in this way amount to about $150,000 per week, exclusive of the amount due on bonds. As all the duties are collected in cash at the rate of twenty per cent on the home valuation, which is considered to be the foreign cost, with fifty per cent added for profits and expenses, and then deducting one sixth of the whole amount, this would make the imports during the last month short of $1,000,000, according to the old mode of valuation. This is scarcely twelve per cent of the average monthly imports of last year, and is indicative of the utter indisposition to import goods, notwithstanding the low rate of duties in comparison with those which were to have been imposed by the bill lately before Congress. That bill levied rates very nearly equal to the tariff of 1832, before the biennial reduction took place. It passed both houses by very small majorities, and encountered the executive veto, on the ground, chiefly, that it contained a clause repealing the conditions on which the distribution bill of the extra session was passed, viz:—that the proceeds of the public lands should revert to the Treasury whenever it became necessary to infringe the compromise act, in order to provide a revenue for the government. The tariff bill would therefore have rendered the land bill void, were it not for the clause which caused it to be vetoed. As the law now stands, the proceeds of the land sales must be distributed among the states, because no duties are levied above twenty per cent. The amount to be distributed is $640,000 only, which will scarcely suffice to pay the expenses of receiving it by twenty-six different states. The effect upon business has not been beneficial, because the same uncertainty, which is so destructive to commercial operations, continues to prevail.

Another reason for the indisposition to import, and probably the principal one, may be found in the general state of the currency of this country, which has been powerfully contracted in proportion to that of the countries with which we hold commercial intercourse. At this time last year, when the commercial year was drawing to a close, a commercial balance was found to be due abroad, which required the export of a sum of specie. This was indicated in the state of exchanges, which had already, in July and August, reached a point at which the precious metals began to flow towards Europe, and the packets continued necessarily to increase the amounts they carried out, until the aggregate export amounted in November to several millions. At that time, it will be remembered, the Bank of Commerce, the American Exchange Bank, and the Merchants' Bank came forward as sellers of bills. This supply was sufficient to check the movement of specie until the bills drawn against crops came forward in sufficient abundance, and the rates of exchange began to fall. The same commercial indebtedness which existed at that time between this country and Europe also existed between the seaboard and the interior; and after the foreign indebtedness was discharged, by coin from the vaults of our banks, those vaults began again to fill by the continued flow of the precious metals from the interior. Until during the spring and forepart of the summer, the

sales of imported goods being limited, and but very little call for money for business purposes existing, the banks found themselves with a large proportion of their capitals idle in their vaults. Their decreased dividends attested the fact that less of their means was profitably employed than usual. We will here insert the following table in order to show, from official returns, the comparative customs received during the six months from January to July, in two years:—

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM JANUARY TO JULY, IN THE YEARS 1841 AND 1842.

Receipts.	1841.	1842.	*Increase.*	*Decrease.*
Customs,	$6,113,410	$7,974,689	$1,861,279	.....
Lands,	826,669	705,000	.....	$121,669
Miscellaneous,	64,941	54,145	.....	10,796
Loan,	.....	1,594,479	1,594,479	.....
Treasury Notes,	3,260,180	8,490,526	5,230,356	.....
Trust Funds,	.....	148,662	148,662	.....
Bank Bond,	677,049	.....	.....	677,049
	$10,942,249	$18,967,501	$7,925,252	.....
Expenditures.				
Civil, Miscellaneous, and Foreign Intercourse,	$3,062,524	$2,951,167	.....	$111,357
Military,	6,442,895	3,620,347	.....	2,822,548
Naval,	2,559,708	3,073,512	513,804	.....
Interest—Public Debt,	3,937	164,231	.....	160,294
Treasury Notes,	2,363,450	6,921,065	4,557,615	.....
Trust Funds,	.....	127,283	127,283	.....
	$14,532,514	$16,857,605	$2,325,091	.....

After the expiration of the six months here embraced for 1841, duties of twenty per cent were laid upon articles theretofore free, and were estimated to yield $5,000,000 per annum, or about equal to the reduction of duties, under the compromise act, since January of the present year; consequently, the aggregate importations have been larger this year than last, but have been mostly on foreign account, and are in store. Remittances have not therefore been required on their account.

A change has now been wrought in the state of affairs. The commercial balance due by the interior to the Atlantic cities has been partially settled. The currency of the interior has at the same time been reduced from the fictitious level of suspended bank paper to the solid basis of specie. Prices have consequently undergone the same operation, and are reduced to very low rates; so low that they will command the markets of the world; and therefore the exports may be expected to be very large. At the same time a thorough change seems to have been undergone in the machinery by which these crops are to be put in motion. Hitherto it has been through the operation of suspended bank credits. That state of things has now ceased to exist. In all sections, the suspended banks have resumed or are going into liquidation. Illinois and Alabama are the only states where suspended paper is now tolerated; and there the state of public opinion is such that liquidation or suspension will speedily be brought about. The prevalence of a specie currency throws down those artificial barriers, which, by the operations of bank credits, were formerly interposed to prevent the natural operation of supply and demand in regulating the prices of commodities. But a few years since, it was supposed that, no matter how great a quantity of cotton was raised, high prices could be compelled for it abroad by a combination of paper credits with a view to hold. For such a purpose the famous Macon Convention was held, but of course utterly failed in its objects. The vast capital of the United States Bank governed the cotton market for a short time, and sustained prices for a season, only to make them sink lower in the end.

The same means were used to attain the same objects in other produce, particularly flour, which in the spring of 1839, was held in the New York market at $9 00, when English orders were here limited to $6 50 or $7 00. The flour was held by bank influence until those orders were supplied from other quarters, and then the price sunk to $5 00, involving heavy losses. The following is a monthly list of prices in the port of New York for several years :—

	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
January,...	$7 43	$11 68	$8 32	$8 87	$6 37	$5 00	$5 87
February,	7 69	11 81	8 00	8 80	6 25	4 87	6 25
March,....	7 97	12 00	8 00	8 47	6 68	4 75	6 25
April,.....	7 69	9 87	7 75	8 25	5 59	4 87	6 37
May,.....	6 75	8 81	7 85	7 31	4 91	4 88	6 25
June,.....	6 81	10 00	7 81	6 45	4 62	5 00	6 00
July,.....	7 12	10 62	7 00	6 06	4 81	5 50	6 00
August,...	7 68	9 00	7 06	6 43	5 12	6 00	5 50
Septemb'r	8 04	9 47	8 37	6 50	4 97	6 50	
October,..	9 41	8 18	8 62	5 87	4 87	6 00	
Novemb'r	10 00	9 25	8 50	6 06	4 93	6 25	
December	10 00	8 93	8 75	6 06	4 91	6 37	
Average,..	$8 25	$9 80	$7 87	$7 09	$5 25	$5 50	$6 07

The low rates to which flour fell in 1840 caused a greater export than ever before. That surplus going off, the home market raised prices of the balance through 1841 at least $1 50 per barrel higher than they would have been, had that surplus been retained on the market. The product of wheat in that year, according to the best estimates, was 90,000,000 bushels, equal to 18,000,000 barrels of flour. This was worth, at the average rate of 1840, $85,500,000. The export of $10,000,000 in that year raised the prices of the succeeding crop $1 50 per barrel at home; consequently benefiting the farmers and millers by the enormous sum of $27,000,000. The product of the present year is admitted on all hands to be immensely greater than ever before, and prices are expected to fall to a level lower than that of 1840, and, without a foreign market, must be still further depressed.

The recent news from abroad, in relation to the crops, was, as usual at this season of the year, contradictory in its character. Much depends upon the weather up to the 1st of October. It seemed to be admitted, however, that if nothing untoward happened, the release of the grain already in bond would supply all the deficiency of the harvest. Should such be the case, it must be remembered that the repeated short crops of Great Britain have exhausted the granaries of Europe to a degree that will place the West Indies, South America, and other markets, entirely at the command of the United States. The prospect of a speedy increase of manufacturing prosperity in Great Britain was not very promising, but notwithstanding the great complaints of dull trade in all quarters, the purchases of cotton by the spinners were very nearly equal to those of last year, and equal to former years; but that demand may not be sufficient to sustain prices in the face of the crop about coming forward. From all these facts it seems highly probable that the abundant crops of the Union will, assisted by the moderated tariff of Great Britain, find good sales abroad; and that a larger surplus than ever of American produce will be exchanged for the proceeds of foreign industry, thereby increasing the wealth of the country, and raising the value of the currency retained in the home market. The growers of produce, being better remunerated, will increase their purchases of manufactured goods, and all classes feel the influence of that general prosperity which seems now about to rise above the ruins of the banking system, based upon the broad foundation of industry and frugality, instead of extravagance and credit. The following

is a table of the leading articles of domestic produce, exported from the United States, in six years, from official documents :—

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, IN SIX YEARS.

	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Cotton,.....	63,240,102	61,556,811	61,238,982	63,870,307	54,330,341
Tobacco,.....	5,795,647	7,392,029	9,832,943	9,883,957	12,576,703
Flour,.....	2,987,269	3,603,299	6,925,170	10,143,615	7,759,646
Cotton Manufactures,..	2,831,473	3,758,755	2,975,033	3,549,607	3,112,546
Pork,.....	1,299,796	1,312,346	1,771,230	1,894,894	2,621,537
Rice,.....	2,309,279	1,721,819	2,460,198	1,942,076	2,010,107

This table gives the fact that as the currency becomes appreciated every article of domestic produce exported increases in value. The same facts may be gathered from the following table, from official sources, showing the imports and exports of the United States in 1841, as compared with previous years :—

AGGREGATE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, FOR FIVE YEARS.

	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
Imports,.....	140,989,217	113,717,404	162,092,132	170,141,519	127,949,177
In Amer. vess.	122,177,193	103,087,448	113,874,252	92,802,352	113,221,877
In For'ign ves.	18,812,024	10,629,956	18,217,830	14,339,167	14,724,300
Domest. exports,	95,564,414	96,033,821	103,533,891	113,895,624	106,382,322
In Amer. vess.	75,482,521	79,855,599	82,127,514	92,030,898	82,569,389
In For'ign ves.	20,081,893	16,178,222	21,406,377	21,864,736	23,813,333
Foreign exports,	21,854,962	12,452,795	17,494,325	18,190,312	15,469,081
Am. tonn. ent'd,	1,299,720	1,302,974	1,491,270	1,576,946	1,631,909
" " cleared,	1,266,622	1,408,761	1,477,928	1,646,009	1,634,156
For. tonn. ent'd,	765,703	592,110	624,814	712,363	736,444
" " cleared,	756,292	604,166	611,839	706,484	738,849
Registered tonn.,	810,447	811,591	874,244	899,764	945,803
Enrolled tonnage,	956,980	1,041,105	1,153,551	1,176,694	1,076,036
Fishing vessels,...	129,257	131,942	108,682	104,304	377,873

The following table gives the comparative imports and exports of each state, for each of the last three years :—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF EACH STATE AND TERRITORY, FOR THE LAST THREE YEARS.

	1839.		1840.		1841.	
	Imports.	*Exports.*	*Imports.*	*Exports.*	*Imports.*	*Exports.*
Maine, ...	$982,724	$895,485	$628,762	$1,018,269	$700,961	$1,091,565
New Hampsh.	41,407	81,944	114,647	20,979	73,701	10,348
Vermont, . . .	413,513	193,896	404,617	305,150	246,739	277,987
Massachusetts,	19,365,223	9,276,085	16,513,858	10,186,261	20,318,003	11,487,343
Rhode Island,	612,057	185,234	274,534	206,989	339,592	278,465
Connecticut, .	446,191	583,226	277,072	518,210	295,999	599,348
New York, . .	99,882,438	33,268,099	60,440,750	34,264,080	75,713,426	33,139,888
New Jersey, .	4,182	98,079	14,888	16,076	2,315	19,168
Pennsylvania,	15,050,715	5,299,415	8,464,882	6,820,145	10,346,698	5,152,501
Delaware, . .	—	8,680	802	37,001	3,276	38,585
Maryland, . .	6,996,285	4,576,561	4,901,746	5,768,768	6,101,313	4,947,166
Dis. Columbia,	132,581	503,717	119,852	753,923	77,263	769,331
Virginia, . . .	913,462	5,187,196	545,085	4,778,220	377,237	5,630,286
Nor. Carolina,	229,233	427,926	252,582	387,484	220,366	383,056
Sou. Carolina,	3,036,077	10,385,426	2,056,870	10,096,769	1,557,431	8,043,284
Georgia, . . .	413,997	5,970,443	491,428	6,862,759	449,007	8,696,513
Alabama, . . .	895,201	10,338,159	574,651	12,854,694	530,819	10,989,271
Louisiana, . .	12,064,942	33,181,167	10,673,190	34,236,986	10,256,350	34,357,483
Ohio, ...	19,280	95,854	4,915	991,954	11,318	798,114
Kentucky, . .	10,480	3,723	2,241	—	—	—
Tennessee, . .	146	—	28,988	—	7,523	—
Michigan, . . .	176,221	133,305	139,610	162,229	137,800	88,529
Florida, ...	278,898	334,806	190,728	1,858,850	33,875	—
Missouri, . . .	46,964	—	10,600	—	145,181	36,629
TOTAL,	$162,092,132	$121,028,416	$107,141,243	$132,085,946	$127,946,177	$121,851,808

The falling off in the aggregate exports for the year 1841 was altogether in cotton and flour—mostly in the former article, the quantity of which that was raised, less in 1841 than in 1840, was 600,000 bales. The export of other articles mostly increased. Hence the decline was more apparent in the southern than in the northern states. The imports show the most remarkable fluctuations, and seem to obey the influence of paper credits in a marked degree. Into Massachusetts it appears the imports in 1841 were greater than ever before, being twenty-five per cent higher than in 1840, and six per cent higher than the year of great importations, 1839, when the imports into New York reached very near $100,000,000. In 1840, the New York imports fell off $40,000,000, and in 1841 but partially recovered; while Massachusetts more than recovered itself. In the year 1839 the imports and exports of Massachusetts amounted to twenty-three per cent of those of New York. In 1841 they reached thirty per cent of the amount. Taking the principal places of import, we shall find that they bear the following proportions in each year to the whole amount of imports:—

TABLE SHOWING THE PROPORTION PER CENT OF THE IMPORTS INTO EACH OF THE FOLLOWING STATES, FOR A SERIES OF YEARS.

	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Massachusetts,.....	13.6	14.4	11.7	11.9	15.4	15.6
New York,.....	62.2	56.6	60.5	61.0	56.4	58.5
Pennsylvania,.....	7.7	8.3	8.1	9.2	7.8	8.1
Maryland,.....	3.2	5.6	5.0	4.3	4.5	4.6
South Carolina,...	1.4	1.7	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.5
Louisiana,.....	7.9	10.0	8.0	7.4	9.9	7.8
Other places,.....	4.0	3.4	4.7	4.3	4.2	3.9
	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.	100.

This table gives the fact that in years of speculation, like 1836 and 1839, New York does the greatest proportion of the foreign business; while in years of steady prosperity, like 1837, '40, and '41, the proportion transacted by Massachusetts improves. The business of Massachusetts in 1841, as compared with 1836, gives an improvement of two per cent of the whole amount; while New York shows a decline of 3.7 per cent. Pennsylvania shows a small improvement; but the business in 1841 was less than the average of the four previous years. Louisiana shows a decline. From these general facts, it may be concluded that the nature of the paper money system is to concentrate trade in New York or the great centre of credit, while a cash business diffuses the trade over the whole country, and promotes "direct" trade, corresponding to the increased exports of produce, which swell under low prices and a steady currency.

Although the indications of trade are favorable, as here pointed out, yet we cannot perceive any signs of improvement in public credit, or of stock securities generally. On the contrary, repudiation, with its attendant tide of dishonor, seems rolling on and threatening to surround and overwhelm not only all those states and institutions which have heretofore been considered sound, but to carry down the federal government in its course. The great state of Pennsylvania has passed into the list of voluntarily-insolvent states. With a debt of $40,000,000, bearing a yearly interest of nearly $2,000,000, and public works valued at $36,000,000, she has dishonored her liabilities, principal and interest, at home and abroad. No effort is made to retrieve her affairs, and she floats a helpless wreck on the ocean of discredit. Nor is she alone. The state of Ohio, with a debt of about $15,000,000, and ample resources, is going rapidly to decay. In April last, owing to her discreditable connection with her suspended banks during the past year, her six per cent stock had fallen to fifty cents on the dollar. It was then thought that some arrangements would be made by taxation to pay off arrearages, complete her public works, and provide for the interest on her debt. Under

this impression, her stock gradually rose to eighty per cent; when at the present session of the state legislature a bill passed the lower house to borrow money at ten per cent to pay her debts, confidence gave way, and the stock fell rapidly. These two states, Ohio and Pennsylvania, having heretofore stood very high, their dereliction has a very unpropitious effect on the already shattered state of American credit, at home and abroad.

The finances of the federal government are in scarcely a better condition. The Secretary of the Treasury has found it impossible to obtain more than the $1,500,000 of the loan mentioned by us in a former number, but has thought proper to despatch an agent to Europe to attempt the negotiation of the remainder, notwithstanding the low state of American credit, and the exasperation of the creditors of the delinquent states. There is very little chance of the mission meeting with any success, and ill success will not add to the dignity or credit of the United States. The actual debt of the federal government is now as follows:—

UNITED STATES NATIONAL DEBT.

Denomination.	*Rate.*	*Redeemable.*	*Amount.*	*Annual Interest.*
District of Columbia Debt,.....	.....	.....	$1,440,000	
Old Funded Debt,.....	.....	.....	233,163	
Unfunded Debt,.....	.....	.....	35,417	
Loan, September, 1841,.....	5 2-5	1844	16,000	$864
" " "	5½	1844	3,213,000	176,705
" " "	6	1844	2,439,000	166,360
" April, 1842,.....	6	1862	1,596,479	95,668
Treasury Notes outstanding,.....	6	1843	10,003,818	600,229
TOTAL, Actual Debt,.....			$18,974,877	$1,039,826
Stock to issue,.....	6	1862	10,405,521	624,331
TOTAL,.....			$29,380,398	$1,664,157

This is an increase of $25,000,000 in the national debt during the sixteen months which have elapsed since March 1, 1841, of which $14,000,000 have been actually spent, and large arrearages are now outstanding. According to the late veto message of the chief magistrate, a deficit of $440,000 exists in the shape of protested navy bills. The regular revenues are far short of the current expenditures, with little or no hope of realizing funds from any means of borrowing. The future is therefore full of gloom; actual dishonor threatens the government on one hand, and a recourse to direct taxation on the other.

The advices by the late packet from Europe state that there is no hope that the government agent will be able to obtain any money for the loan. The defalcation of Pennsylvania has given a severe blow to the remaining confidence in the will of the American people to pay. The state of commercial affairs was, however, much improved; low prices and a cheap rate of money were bringing about a renewed state of activity in trade generally. The prospect of a fair harvest had given an immediate start to business. It however had caused a fall, in the short space of two weeks, of 12*s.* per quarter in wheat—equal to about sixteen per cent. This fact had encouraged the manufacturers, because it is well known that the home trade is always most prosperous when, through the cheapness of bread, the power of the masses to purchase goods is increased. This had produced an improved demand for cotton, with good prospect of a remunerating trade.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

MANUFACTURES OF WOOL, COTTON, SILK, TEAS, COFFEE, SUGAR AND GLASS IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES

FOR A SERIES OF YEARS.

The following tables are derived from the report of the Hon. Walter Forward, Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, transmitting "a bill to provide revenue from imports, and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes." The report was made in obedience to a resolution of the House of Representatives of the 29th of March, 1842, requiring the Secretary to communicate to the House "the plans, views, information, and matters called for by the Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means." The tables exhibit—

1. The value of manufactures of wool imported into the United States in each year from 1823 to 1840; embracing cloths and cassimeres, flannels and baizes, blankets, hosiery, gloves, mitts and bindings, worsted stuffs, and other manufactures of wool.
2. Value of manufactures of cotton imported into the United States in each year from 1823 to 1840, inclusive; embracing printed, stained, or colored cottons, white cottons, hosiery, gloves, mitts and bindings, twist, yarn, and thread, nankeens direct from China, and other manufactures of cotton.
3. Value of manufactures of silk and silk unmanufactured, imported into the United States in each year from 1823 to 1840, inclusive; embracing manufactures of silk, sewing silk, bolting cloth, and raw silk.
4. Quantity and value of manufactures of iron, and iron and steel, and iron and steel unmanufactured, imported into the United States in each year from 1823 to 1840; embracing pig iron, old and scrap iron, bar iron manufactured by rolling, and bar iron manufactured otherwise.
5. Pounds and value of teas, coffee, and sugar, imported into the United States in each year from 1821 to 1840, inclusive.
6. Quantity and value of manufactured glass imported into the United States in each year from 1825 to 1840, inclusive; embracing apothecaries' vials, perfumery vials, black bottles, demijohns, and window glass.

1.—*The Value of Manufactures of Wool imported into the United States in each year from* 1823 *to* 1840, *embracing Cloths and Cassimeres, Flannels and Baizes, Blankets, Hosiery, Gloves, Mitts and Bindings, Worsted Stuffs, and other Manufactures of Wool. In Dollars.*

Years.	*Cloths and Cassimeres.*	*Flannels and Baizes.*	*Blankets.*	*Hosiery, Gloves, Mitts, and Bindings.*	*Worsted Stuffs.*	*Other Manufactures of Wool.*	*Total Value.*
1823	5,844,086	.....	604,896	.....	1,504,469	....	7,953,451
1824	5,045,159	156,850	526,053	55,868	2,158,680	144,273	8,086,883
1825	5,264,562	1,065,609	891,197	369,747	2,277,486	1,008,272	10,876,873
1826	4,546,714	586,823	527,784	189,993	1,143,166	892,346	7,886,826
1827	4,285,413	587,250	703,477	376,927	1,382,875	895,573	8,231,515
1828	4,315,714	667,722	624,239	365,339	1,446,146	678,399	8,097,559
1829	3,335,994	383,208	455,467	230,986	1,600,622	551,958	6,558,235
1830	2,854,339	266,060	594,044	133,453	1,397,545	319,306	5,564,747
1831	6,121,442	695,666	1,180,478	325,856	3,392,037	490,651	12,206,130
1832	5,101,841	503,193	602,796	260,563	2,615,124	351,132	9,434,649
1833	6,133,443	286,299	1,165,260	463,348	4,281,309	515,179	12,844,838
1834	4,364,340	240,663	1,068,065	383,977	4,985,925	204,085	11,247,055
1835	7,048,334	399,785	1,865,344	652,680	6,549,278	454,293	16,969,714
1836	8,945,509	475,712	2,397,822	700,530	6,669,312	714,569	19,903,454
1837	3,015,783	111,249	959,814	177,092	3,350,266	90,859	7,705,063
1838	5,348,928	159,979	946,546	356,965	3,933,455	315,091	11,060,964
1839	7,361,373	291,373	1,356,086	1,037,096	7,025,898	522,710	17,594,536
1840	4,823,138	118,715	570,417	506,452	2,387,338	222,692	8,628,752

2.—*Value of Manufactures of Cotton imported into the United States in each year from* 1823 *to* 1840, *inclusive; embracing Printed, Stained, or Colored Cottons, White Cottons, Hosiery, Gloves, Mitts and Bindings, Twist, Yarn and Thread Nankeens direct from China, and other manufactures of cotton. In dollars.*

Years.	*Printed, Stained, or Colored.*	*White Cottons.*	*Hosiery, Gloves, Mitts, and Bindings.*	*Twist, Yarn, & Thread.*	*Nank'ns, direct from China.*	*Other Manufactures of Cotton.*	*Total Value.*
1823	4,899,499	2,636,813	629,211	103,259	600,700	.....	8,869,482
1824	5,776,210	2,354,540	649,424	140,069	188,633	48,791	9,157,667
1825	7,709,830	3,326,208	545,915	201,549	350,243	375,771	12,509,516
1826	5,056,725	2,260,024	404,870	175,143	304,980	146,292	8,348,034
1827	5,316,546	2,584,994	439,773	263,772	256,221	454,847	9,316,153
1828	6,133,844	2,451,316	640,360	344,040	388,231	1,038,439	10,996,230
1829	4,404,078	2,242,805	586,997	173,120	542,179	412,838	8,362,017
1830	4,356,675	2,487,804	387,454	172,785	228,233	229,375	7,862,326
1831	10,046,500	4,285,175	887,957	393,414	114,076	363,102	16,090,224
1832	6,355,475	2,258,672	1,035,513	316,122	120,629	313,242	10,399,653
1833	5,181,647	1,181,512	623,369	343,059	37,001	293,861	7,660,449
1834	6,668,823	1,766,482	749,356	379,793	47,337	533,390	10,145,181
1835	10,610,722	2,738,493	906,369	544,473	9,021	558,507	15,367,585
1836	12,192,980	2,766,787	1,358,608	555,290	28,348	974,074	17,876,087
1837	7,087,270	1,611,398	1,267,267	404,603	35,990	744,313	11,150,841
1838	4,217,551	980,142	767,856	222,114	27,049	384,618	6,599,330
1839	9,000,216	2,154,931	1,879,783	779,004	3,772	874,691	14,692,397
1840	3,893,694	917,101	792,078	387,095	1,102	513,414	6,504,484

3.—*Value of Manufactures of Silk and Silk unmanufactured, imported into the United States in each year from* 1823 *to* 1840, *inclusive; embracing Manufactures of Silk, Sewing Silk, Bolting Cloth, and Raw Silk. In dollars.*

Years.	*Manufactures of Silk.*	*Sewing Silk.*	*Bolting Cloth.*	*Raw Silk.*	*Total Value.*
1823	6,713,771	.....	.....	4,673	6,718,444
1824	7,203,334	.....	729	1,254	7,205,317
1825	10,271,527	.....	20,126	8,090	10,299,743
1826	8,104,837	.....	30,576	192,496	8,327,909
1827	6,545,245	.....	31,540	135,230	6,712,015
1828	7,608,614	.....	29,417	48,609	7,686,640
1829	7,045,628	.....	42,274	101,796	7,189,698
1830	5,774,010	.....	39,158	119,074	5,932,242
1831	11,049,379	701,728	52,203	88,557	11,891,867
1832	8,466,337	651,375	52,257	48,938	9,218,907
1833	9,006,556	294,300	62,162	135,348	9,498,366
1834	10,998,964	328,929	4,586	78,706	11,411,185
1835	16,208,555	389,428	68,849	10,715	16,677,547
1836	22,079,002	783,175	80,528	37,507	22,970,212
1837	13,407,574	707,597	25,958	211,694	14,352,823
1838	9,454,160	358,178	28,972	29,938	9,871,248
1839	20,769,294	869,534	64,283	39,258	21,752,369
1840	9,252,624	274,364	74,534	234,235	9,835,757

4.—*Quantity and Value of Manufactures of Iron, and Iron and Steel, and Iron and Steel unmanufactured, imported into the United States in each year from* 1823 *to* 1840; *embracing Pig Iron, Old and Scrap Iron, Bar Iron manufactured by rolling, and Bar Iron manufactured otherwise.*

Years.	MANUFACTURES OF IRON, AND IRON AND STEEL.		PIG IRON.		OLD AND SCRAP IRON.		BAR IRON MANUFACTURED BY ROLLING.		BAR IRON MANUFACTURED OTHERWISE.	
	Paying Duties ad val.	*Paying Specific Duties.*	*Cwt.*	*Value. Dolls.*	*Cwt.*	*Value. Dolls.*	*Cwt.*	*Value. Dolls.*	*Cwt.*	*Value. Dolls.*
1823	2568842	203446	49607	74510	.....	.....	106933	113349	591880	1778286
1824	2055291	159281	15856	23784	.....	.....	115809	122758	425966	1323825
1825	3312488	393658	16309	36513	.....	.....	85010	224497	492998	1562146
1826	2831243	355152	34092	67004	.....	.....	88741	223259	467515	1590350
1827	3525433	445364	35118	46881	.....	.....	162052	347792	440200	1323749
1828	3559982	620933	69937	93025	.....	.....	205897	441000	667849	2141178
1829	3100630	330278	22771	28811	.....	.....	66408	119326	589638	1884049
1830	3372146	283702	22499	25644	.....	.....	138981	226336	613866	1730375
1831	4358921	468912	138967	160681	.....	.....	344918	544664	466359	1260166
1832	4697512	608733	203025	222303	.....	.....	427745	701549	763001	1929493
1833	3376850	773855	186601	217668	19963	24035	560566	1002750	722486	1837473
1834	4090621	656000	222265	270325	32746	33243	577927	1187236	635698	1742883
1835	4827461	524155	245917	289779	12806	11609	568204	1051052	630584	1641359
1836	7001404	879465	170822	272978	24953	28224	933514	2131828	658752	1891214
1837	5488611	1038382	282571	422929	15333	18391	956792	2573367	626512	2017346
1838	3069507	544679	243830	319099	8739	7567	723486	1825121	426389	1166196
1839	5585023	922447	250154	285300	11783	10161	1205697	3181180	711153	2054094
1840	2575229	609671	110314	114562	14142	15749	656574	1707649	576381	1689831

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5.—*Pounds and Value of Teas, Coffee, and Sugar, imported into the United States, in each year from* 1821 *to* 1840, *inclusive.*

Years.	TEAS.		COFFEE.		SUGAR.	
	Pounds.	*Value.*	*Pounds.*	*Value.*	*Pounds.*	*Value.*
1821	4,975,646	$1,322,636	21,273,659	$4,489,970	59,512,835	$3,553,582
1822	6,639,434	1,860,777	25,782,390	5,552,649	88,305,670	5,034,429
1823	8,210,010	2,361,245	37,337,732	7,098,119	60,789,210	3,258,689
1824	8,920,487	2,786,312	30,224,296	5,437,029	94,379,814	5,165,800
1825	10,209,548	3,728,935	45,190,630	5,250,828	71,771,479	4,232,530
1826	10,108,900	3,752,281	37,319,497	4,159,558	84,902,955	5,311,631
1827	5,875,638	1,714,882	50,051,986	4,464,391	76,701,629	4,577,361
1828	7,707,427	2,451,197	55,194,697	5,192,338	56,935,951	3,546,736
1829	6,636,790	2,060,457	51,133,538	4,588,585	63,307,294	3,622,406
1830	8,609,415	2,425,018	51,488,248	4,227,021	86,483,046	4,630,342
1831	5,182,867	1,418,037	81,757,386	6,317,666	109,014,654	4,910,877
1832	9,906,606	2,788,353	91,722,329	9,099,464	66,452,288	2,933,688
1833	14,639,822	5,484,603	99,955,020	10,567,299	97,688,132	4,752,343
1834	16,282,977	6,217,949	80,150,366	8,762,657	115,389,855	5,537,829
1835	14,415,572	4,522,806	103,199,777	10,715,466	126,036,239	6,806,174
1836	16,382,114	5,342,811	93,790,507	9,653,053	191,426,115	12,514,504
1837	16,982,384	5,903,054	88,140,403	8,657,760	136,139,819	7,202,668
1838	14,418,112	3,497,156	88,139,720	7,640,217	153,879,143	7,586,360
1839	9,349,817	2,428,419	106,696,992	9,744,103	195,231,273	9,919,502
1840	20,006,595	5,427,010	94,996,095	8,546,222	120,939,585	5,580,950

6.—*Quantity and Value of Manufactured Glass imported into the United States in each year from* 1825 *to* 1840; *embracing Apothecaries' Vials, Perfumery Vials, Black Bottles, Demijohns, and Window Glass.*

Years.	*Glass-ware, paying duties ad valorem.*	APOTHECARIES' VIALS.		PERFUMERY VIALS.		BLACK BOTTLES.		DEMIJOHNS.		WINDOW GLASS.	
		Gross	*Value.*	*Gro.*	*Value.*	*Gross.*	*Value.*	*Numb.*	*Value.*	100 *Sq. Ft.*	*Value.*
25	218,005	4,636	$7,075	.....	.....	13,086	$64,658	37,883	$15,437	5,506	$59,956
26	159,088	3,451	9,219	.....	.....	23,546	115,100	63,553	25,547	7,982	71,348
27	279,096	9,838	22,903	.....	.....	27,839	140,743	53,251	20,710	5,671	71,752
28	384,412	3,995	10,640	.....	.....	22,092	104,767	56,295	19,573	4,352	56,577
29	303,612	691	2,004	.....	.....	12,383	58,502	60,825	20,027	3,631	50,355
30	255,749	1,161	3,473	.....	.....	13,327	52,991	50,614	15,624	2,086	25,597
31	345,797	402	1,260	.....	.....	17,893	81,877	58,157	17,851	4,605	59,576
32	505,285	1,375	3,237	.....	.....	25,954	119,835	58,410	17,013	4,904	63,241
33	333,882	846	3,655	88	$725	26,046	118,820	54,997	15,390	8,539	78,151
34	376,245	429	2,304	57	639	23,254	117,428	70,776	20,783	7,416	73,332
35	438,118	598	1,555	96	1,122	24,014	118,225	70,001	21,307	21,275	136,968
36	618,107	238	1,296	95	1,906	48,205	260,074	73,945	23,298	27,149	188,750
37	592,982	244	1,074	124	1,196	48,051	271,181	79,468	23,981	15,324	111,327
38	310,726	250	1,158	68	599	27,489	148,379	49,354	14,911	6,271	55,227
39	659,474	365	1,650	270	2,073	35,073	178,765	50,016	14,609	24,464	105,751
40	360,847	276	925	77	1,571	25,548	118,268	85,508	25,072	13,525	56,746

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TARIFF OF IMPORTATION INTO BRAZIL.

The tariff which obtained during the years 1838, 1839, and 1840, is the same which is in force at present, with exception of the annexed modifications, affecting the most important export from the United States.

The duty on foreign goods is throughout the empire 15 per cent on valuations fixed by the tariff, except wines and spirituous liquors, (the produce of countries not having a commercial treaty with Brazil,) which pay 48½ per cent; gunpowder, which pays 50 per cent; and tea, which pays 30 per cent.

The valuation of all articles not enumerated in the tariff is made by the importer; the right, however, being vested in the officers of the customs to take goods so valued, on payment of the valuation and 10 per cent additional.

Free of Duty.—Coals, steam-engines, and any machinery or invention not previously known and in use in Brazil.

Imports pay, besides the duties above named, 1½ per cent entry, and 3½ storage, in right of which drygoods are entitled to four months; those articles denominated *estive goods* are allowed 30 days' storage free of charge. After the expiration of the respective periods, both descriptions are charged ¼ per cent per month.

Manufactures of linen cambric, silk thread, or gold lace, and precious stones, are exempt from the charge of storage; also foreign goods from other ports of the empire, if accompanied by the necessary certificate.

Additional charges on liquids, 10 cents per pipe for the Misericordia hospital, and 68 cents per pipe of 132 gallons for the municipal bureau.

Transhipment.—If for the coast of Africa, the same duties have to be paid as for importation; for other places 2 per cent, and 1½ per cent for clearance.

Port Charges.—Vessels trading with foreign ports pay tonnage dues at the rate of 30

reis (.01.7 nearly) per ton per diem, not exceeding 50 days, to be estimated from the date of entry. Vessels which shall land at any port of the empire more than 100 white colonists, or which may put into any port of Brazil in distress, neither loading nor discharging cargo, are exempt from the payment of these dues. Additional charges:—

For every sailor,		37 cts. 3 m.
For every three-masted vessel,	$3	48
Having less than three masts,	2	32
For stamp and seal,		46 cts. 4 m.
The pass of every national, English, or Portuguese vessel costs,	3	90
For a vessel of any other nation,	5	93

FIXED VALUE AND PER CENTAGE DUTIES ON IMPORTATIONS INTO BRAZIL.

The following tariff is taken from the "Jornal de Commercia," Rio de Janeiro, date January 3, 1842.

The fixed valuations are reduced to the United States currency; the rate of exchange as quoted at that date being used—1,720 reis=one Spanish dollar.

In the *per centage* column the 1½ per cent entry and 3½ storage are not included; neither the additional charges on liquids.

Denomination of Merchandise.	*Number, Weight, or Measure.*	*Fixed Value in dol. cts. m.*	*Per Centage Duty on the Fixed Value.*
Aniseed,	32 lbs. 8 oz.	1 84 6	15
Brazils, (sheepskins)	dozen	4 64 0	15
Black Pepper,	1 lb. 4 drs.	8 7	15
Blue Nankeens, India,	piece	1 10 2	15
Blue Nankeens, English,	26¼ inches	5 8	15
Boots, Spanish,	dozen	9 28 0	15
Bottles,	hundred	3 77 0	15
Brass Wire,	1 lb. 4 drs.	29 0	15
Brass Basins,	1 lb. 4 drs.	28 0	15
Brimstone, in rolls,	32 lbs. 8 oz.	81 2	15
Butter, Irish,	1 lb. 4 drs.	23 2	15
Canvass, Russia,	piece	11 60 0	15
Canvass, English,	piece	9 28 0	15
Canvass, narrow,	piece	6 96 0	15
Cheese, Dutch,	each	40 6	15
Cheese, English,	1 lb. 4 drs.	29 0	15
Codfish,	box or bale	4 64 0	15
Coal Tar, English,	barrel	4 16 6	15
Coals,	tonelada	9 28 0	15
Candles, spermaceti,	1 lb. 4 drs.	34 8	15
Candles, tallow,	box	4 06 8	15
Colored Sheepskins,	dozen	8 12 0	15
Copper, for braziers,	1 lb. 4 drs.	27 5	15
Copper, for sheathing,	1 lb. 4 drs.	27 5	15
Coffee Bagging, German,	piece	3 48 0	15
Cordage, English,	130 lbs.	10 44 0	15
Cordage, Russian,	130 lbs.	10 44 0	15
Cordage, Coir,	130 lbs.	8 12 0	15
Deals of Pine,	dozen	8 12 0	15
Demijohns,	each	46 4	15
Duck, Russian,	piece	5 80 0	15
Duck, English,	piece	5 80 0	15
Gunpowder, fine, in cannisters,	1 lb. 4 drs.	26 1	50
Gunpowder, in kegs,	1 lb. 4 drs.	26 1	50
Gunpowder, for blasting,	1 lb. 4 drs.	26 1	50
Hams, Portuguese,	1 lb. 4 drs.	10 6	15
Hams, Hamburgese,	1 lb. 4 drs.	10 6	15
Hams, English,	1 lb. 4 drs.	10 6	15
Hams, American,	1 lb. 4 drs.	10 6	15
Hedging Bills, large,	each	23 2	15

DUTIES ON IMPORTATIONS INTO BRAZIL.—*Continued.*

Denomination of Merchandise.	*Number, Weight, or Measure.*	*Fixed Value in dol.*	*cts.*	*m.*	*Per Centage Duty on the Fixed Value.*
Hedging Bills, small,	each		17	4	15
Hides, dry, from Rio de la Plata,	1 lb. 4 drs.		10	6	15
Hessens,	yard		9	0	15
Iron wire,	1 lb. 4 drs.		7	6	15
Iron Hoops,	130 lbs.	3	71	2	15
Iron Pots, cast,	1 lb. 4 drs.		3	4	15
Iron Pots, wrought,	1 lb. 4 drs.		17	4	15
Iron in bars, English,	130 lbs.	2	90	0	15
Iron in rod, English,	130 lbs.	3	71	2	15
Iron in bars, Swedish,	130 lbs.	4	06	0	15
Iron in rod, Swedish,	130 lbs.	5	22	0	15
Jerked Beef, from Rio de la Plata,	32 lbs. 8 oz.	1	16	0	15
Lead in bars,	130 lbs.	5	80	0	15
Lead in sheets,	130 lbs.	5	80	0	15
Linseed Oil in casks or jugs,	1 lb. 4 drs.		8	7	15
Macaroni, vermicelli, &c.	32 lbs. 8 oz.	2	32	0	15
Mess Beef,	barrel	11	12	6	15
Mess Pork,	barrel	13	92	0	15
Muscatel Raisins,	box	2	32	0	15
Muskets,	each	valuation			15
Osnaburgs,	43¼ inches		11	0	15
Paper, almaco, 1st quality,	ream	1	62	4	15
Paper, almaco, 2d quality,	ream	1	62	4	15
Paper, florete, 1st quality,	ream	1	10	2	15
Paper, florete, 2d quality,	ream	1	10	2	15
Portuguese Hoes,	each		6	5	15
Portuguese Axes,	each		29	0	15
Portuguese Dowlas,	43¼ inches		17	4	15
Pitch, Swedish,	barrel	5	80	0	15
Rosin,	barrel	1	84	6	15
Rod Tin,	1 lb. 4 drs.		20	7	15
Salt,	1 1-10 bushel		34	8	15
Saltpetre,	32 lbs. 8 oz.	2	90	0	15
Sail Twine,	1 lb. 4 drs. 23	2 a 31		3	15
Sewing Twine,	32 lbs. 8 oz.	3	77	0	15
Sewing Thread, port,	package	1	16	0	15
Sewing Silk, assorted,	1 lb. 4 drs.	4	64	0	15
Shoe Thread,	1 lb. 4 drs. 23	2 a 31		3	15
Shot, assorted,	130 lbs.	8	70	0	15
Snuff, Princeza,	1 lb. 4 drs.	2	32	0	15
Soap, English,	1 lb. 4 drs.		6	9	15
Soap, American,	1 lb. 4 drs.		6	9	15
Soap, Mediterranean,	1 lb. 4 drs.		6	9	15
Steel, Milan,	130 lbs.	6	96	0	15
Shell Almonds,	32 lbs. 8 oz.	2	32	0	15
Tar, Swedish,	barrel	4	64	0	15
Tar, American,	barrel	2	90	0	15
Tea, Hyson,	1 lb. 4 drs.		58	0	30
Tea, Souchong,	1 lb. 4 drs.		23	2	30
Tin Plates,	box	9	28	0	15
Turpentine, Spirits of,	1 lb. 4 drs.		10	6	15
Wax, White,	1 lb. 4 drs.		34	8	15
Wax, Yellow,	1 lb. 4 drs.		34	8	15
Waxed Calfskins,	dozen	11	60	0	15
White Lead,	130 lbs.	8	70	0	15
Whiting,	130 lbs.		92	8	15
Wheat, of Cape of Good Hope,	1 1-10 bushel	1	16	0	15
Wheat, of Valparaiso,	1 1-10 bushel	1	16	0	15
Wheat, of Europe,	1 1-10 bushel	1	16	0	15
Window Glass, in boxes of 100 feet,	box	4	06	8	15

DUTIES ON IMPORTATIONS INTO BRAZIL.—*Continued.*

New Regulation for the Valuation of Liquids, generally, and Flour from Wheat, organized in conformity with the decree of the 7th January, 1840, *and put in force on the 27th February.*

Denomination of Merchandise.	*Number, Weight, or Measure.*	*Fixed Value in dol.*	*cts.*	*m.*	*Per Centage Duty on the Fixed Value.*
Alcohol, 36 deg. Cartier proof,	1 lb. 4 drs.		68	6	48½
Beer, in casks,	132 gallons	92	80	0	48½
Beer, in bottles,	dozen of 9 quarts	2	32	0	48½
Brandy, Cogniac, French,	132 gallons	174	00	0	48½
Brandy, other,	132 gallons	92	80	0	48½
Brandy, French, in demijohns or bottles	9 quarts	5	80	0	48½
Brandy, other, in demijohns,	9 quarts	3	48	0	48½
Cider, in casks,	132 gallons	17	40	0	48½
Cider, in bottles,	9 quarts	2	32	0	48½
Cordials,	9 quarts	4	16	6	48½
Flour, from Wheat,	barrel	9	28	0	48½
Gin, in casks,	132 gallons	92	80	0	48½
Gin, in bottles or flasks,	9 quarts	1	97	2	48½
Gin, in jars,	9 quarts	1	74	0	48½
Gin, in kegs,	132 gallons	92	80	0	48½
Oil, Sweet, in casks or jars,	132 gallons	116	00	0	48½
Oil, Sweet, in bottles or flasks,	9 quarts	3	77	0	48½
Oil, Vegetable, all other not specified	132 gallons	104	40	0	48½
Oil, Fish, whale and spermaceti,	132 gallons	90	48	0	48½
Oil, Animal, all other not specified,	132 gallons	63	80	0	48½
Spirits, all not specified,	132 gallons	92	80	0	48½
Vinegar,	132 gallons	34	80	0	48½
Wine, in casks, Champagne,	132 gallons	208	80	0	48½
Wine, Xeres, (Sherry,)	132 gallons	162	40	0	48½
Wine, Madeira, superior,	132 gallons	162	40	0	48½
Wine, Muscadel,	132 gallons	139	20	0	48½
Wine, Oporto, (Fertoria,)	132 gallons	139	20	0	48½
Wine, Sicily, (Marsala,)	132 gallons	104	40	0	48½
Wine, Portugal, (Jurujuga,)	132 gallons	87	00	0	48½
Wine, Bordeos, superior,	132 gallons	76	56	0	48½
Wine, Lisbon,	132 gallons	65	10	0	48½
Wine, Lisbon, superior,	132 gallons	75	40	0	48½
Wine of Oporto and Sicily, in imitation of Madeira,	132 gallons	63	80	0	48½
Wine, Figuera and Vienna, new, and Madeira, common,	132 gallons	58	00	0	48½
Wine, of Spain,	132 gallons	49	30	0	48½
Wine, all other in casks, not specified,	132 gallons	46	40	0	48½
Wine in bottles, Champagne and Constantia, or imitations thereof,	dozen of 9 quarts	10	44	0	48½
Wine, Madeira, Muscatel, Sherry, Rhenish, white or red, and Bordeaux, of whatever quality,	9 quarts	6	96	0	48½
Wine, Muscatel and Frontignac,	9 quarts	2	61	0	48½
Wine, all other in bottles, not specified,	9 quarts	5	74	3	48½

COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF SWEDEN WITH THE UNITED STATES.

DERIVED FROM CONGRESSIONAL DOCUMENTS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE SECRETARY OF STATE.

Several commercial treaties have been concluded between Sweden and the United States. The first was negotiated at Paris, in 1783, and expired by its own limitation in 1788. This treaty placed the United States flag, in the ports of Sweden, on the footing of the most favored nations, granting equal privileges to Swedish vessels in the United States. In 1816, another treaty was concluded with Sweden, the provisions of which were similar

in their effect to those of the preceding treaty. This treaty expired in 1824. On the 4th of July, 1827, a third treaty was concluded with Sweden, by which the commercial intercourse of the two countries is placed on a footing of the most perfect reciprocity. By this treaty, United States vessels are allowed the same privilege of indirect trade to the Swedish ports which is enjoyed by national vessels, and are made liable to no other or higher exactions, in the shape of "tonnage, lighthouse, pilotage, and port charges, as well as the perquisites of public officers, and all other duties and charges, of whatever kind or denomination, levied in the name or to the profit of the government, the local authorities, or of any private establishments whatsoever." This treaty is still in force; its operation, although limited, in the first instance, to the period of ten years, being continued, by its terms, until one "of the high contracting parties shall have announced, by an official notification to the other, its intention to arrest the operation of said treaty." The 9th and 10th articles of this treaty also preclude either of the contracting powers from establishing "any prohibition or restriction of importation or exportation, or any duties of any kind or denomination whatsoever," on the products of the soil or industry of the other contracting power, unless similar prohibitions, restrictions, and duties, be likewise established upon articles of the like nature, the growth of any other country. A perfect reciprocity is also guarantied in regard to "all bounties and drawbacks" which may be allowed within the territories of either of the high contracting parties, upon the importation or exportation of any article whatsoever.

On all articles in the vessels of those countries which have no treaties with Sweden there is imposed in her ports a discriminating duty of 40 per cent, and on all exports in similar vessels a like duty of 50 per cent.

United States vessels pay a tonnage duty of about 9 8-10ths cents per last; the Swedish last, in the admeasurement of vessels, being generally found to exceed 1½, and sometimes to equal 2 American tons. Foreign vessels, not protected by treaty, pay a tonnage duty of about 29½ cents per last.

Tariff of Sweden.

List of Duties on the Principal Articles of Import into Sweden.

Articles.	*Number, &c.*	*Rate of Duty.*
Oil, Whale, and other Fish,		10 per cent ad val.
Candles, Spermaceti,	per Swedish lb. (15 oz. avoir)	16 320-1000 cents.
Skins and Furs, undressed—		
Bear,	each	56 320-1000 cts.
Buck and Goat,	each	7 344-1000 cts.
Beaver,	each	16 320-1000 cts.
Sheep, Lamb, and Crimea,	each	8 160-1000 cts.
Sheep, others, unclipped,	each	3 264-1000 cts.
Genett,	each	3 60-1000 cts.
Calabar or Squirrel,	per doz.	2 856-1000 cts.
Badger,	each	2 448-1000 cts.
Hare,	each	1 904-1000 cts.
Ermine or Weasel,	each	680-1000 of a ct.
Polecat,	each	5 508-1000 cts.
Dog,	each	1 904-1000 ct.
Glutton,	each	26 112-1000 cts.
Rabbit,	each	816-1000 of a ct.
Lion,	each	80 cts.
Leopard,	each	$1 06 112-1000
Lynx,	each	26 112-1000 cts.
Martin,	each	19 584-1000 cts.
Tails,	per doz.	16 320-1000 cts.
Meneeker,	per skin	2 448-1000 cts.
Reindeer,	per skin	8 976-1000 cts.
Fox,	per skin	26 112-1000 cts.

TARIFF OF SWEDEN.—*Continued.*

Articles.	*Number, &c.*	*Rate of Duty.*
Raccoon,	per skin	10 608-1000 cts.
Seal,	per skin	4 896-1000 cts.
Sable,	per skin	80 cts.
Tails,	per doz.	44 896-1000 cts.
Swan,	each	8 976-1000 cts.
Tiger,	each	80 cts.
Otter,	each	26 112-1000 cts.
Wolf,	each	22 848-1000 cts.
Others not specified,		10 per cent ad val.
Dressed, more or less, or tanned, and sewed together, all sorts, pay 50 per cent more than the above duties for undressed skins and furs.		
Rice,	per 15 oz. avoir.	1¼ ct.
Cotton,	per 15 oz. avoir.	½ of a cent.
Tobacco, Maryland, leaves,	per 15 oz. avoir.	4½ cents.
Tobacco of other denominations,	per 15 oz. avoir.	4½ cents.
Tobacco Leaves, in rolls,	per 15 oz. avoir.	12½ cts.
Tobacco Stems,	per 15 oz. avoir.	1½ ct.
Hops,	per lispund, (18 lb. 12 oz. avoirdupois)	40 cts.
Cigars,	per hundred	40 cts.
Snuff, Spanish,	per 15 oz.	29 376-1000 cts.
Snuff, other sorts,	per 15 oz.	9 792-1000 cts.
Fish, salted Cod or Ling,	per barrel	99 584-1000 cts.
Fish, dried or smoked,	per 18 lb. 12 oz.	13 56-1000 cts.
Fish, salted, Herrings,	per barrel	26 112-1000 cts.
Whale Fins, unwrought,	per 15 oz.	2 448-1000 cts.
Whale Fins, wrought,	per 15 oz.	9 792-1000 cts.
Cotton Goods—		
Cambrics of a fineness above seventy-five threads to an inch of warp,	per ell	4 896-1000 cts.
Satins and Jeans to five quarters wide,	per ell	4 896-1000 cts.
Dimity to 8 quarters broad,	per ell	6 328-1000 cts.
Percales and Batiste to 5 quarters wide,	per ell	6 328-1000 cts.
Velveteens and Manchesters to 4 quarters wide,	per ell	6 328-1000 cts.
Velvet,	per ell	3 264-1000 cts.
Pique Net, figured, to 5 quarters wide,	per ell	9 792-1000 cts.
Corderoys, to 4 quarters broad,	per ell	8 160-1000 cts.
Gauze, half lawn, muslin, mull, or jaconet, to 9 qrs. wide,	per ell	4 080-1000 cts.
Net trimmings,	15 oz.	80 cts.
Shawls, Neckatees, and Pocket Handkerchiefs, figured in the weaving,	per ¼ ell	6 528-1000 cts.
Potash, rough,	per 18 lb. 12 oz.	816-1000 of a ct.
Potash, refined or calcined,	per 18 lb. 12 oz.	13 56-1000 cts.
Pitch,	per barrel	$1 20
Tar,	per barrel	53 056-1000 cts.
Flour, Wheat,	per 225 lb.	32 640-1000 cts.
Wheat,	per barrel	32 640-1000 cts.
Indian Corn,	per barrel	$2
Cotton,	per 15 oz.	408-1000 of a ct.
Beef or Mutton, salted,	per barrel	$2 66 112-1000.
Bacon,	per 18 lb. 12 oz.	53 56-1000 cts.
Dyewoods, unrasped, all sorts,		1 per cent ad val.
Dyewoods, chips of,	per 18 lb. 12 oz.	19 584-1000 cts.
Animals—		
Horses,	each	$4 80.
Horned Cattle,	each	$2 66 112-1000
Other quadrupeds,	each	80 cts.
Horses and Colts imported for the improvement of the breed pay one fourth of the above duty.		
Ewes and Rams, from Germany and countries on the Atlantic, imported for improving the breed,		Free.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Cottage Residences; or a Series of Designs for Rural Cottages and Cottage Villas, and their Gardens and Grounds, adapted to North America.* By A. J. Downing, author of a treatise on Landscape Gardening. 8vo. pp. 187. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1842.

We have for a long time desired to see a work of this kind, adapted to the tastes and condition of our republic; a work that should lay before the American citizen plans and views calculated to improve our rural and domestic architecture. We have been sadly deficient in this respect; in proof of which one need only pass through any of the towns and villages in the interior to convince him that very little attention, comparatively, has been paid to the style of building, which, for the most part, is rude and uncouth. We therefore heartily thank Mr. Downing for presenting the public with a work so admirably adapted to this object. It is the first volume, we believe, yet published in the United States devoted to rural architecture; and will, we trust, be instrumental in reforming altogether the crude and barnlike appearance of our infant villages. The volume is beautifully printed, and illustrated with numerous engravings.

2.—*Critical and Miscellaneous Writings of* Thomas Noon Talfourd, author of "Ion." 12mo. pp. 354. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1842.

This volume corresponds in style and size with the "Miscellanies of Macauley," collected and published by the same enterprising house some time since. The contents of the present volume consist chiefly of criticisms and essays originally published in the leading periodicals of England, such as the "New Monthly Magazine," "Retrospective Review," and the "Examiner." Talfourd has few if any superiors, as a pure, chaste, English prose writer. He has all the smoothness and finish of Edward Everett, with far greater force and energy of style. He possesses a true appreciation of the sublime and the beautiful; and in his criticisms of poets and novelists, he appears to enter into the inmost recesses of the human soul, and bring out all the hidden riches of thought and springs of intellectual movement within its sacred precincts.

3.—*The Christian's Triumph;* including Happy Death-bed Scenes, illustrative of the Power of the Gospel: Drawn from Facts. By J. G. Adams. Boston: A. Tompkins. 18mo. pp. 216.

The object of this volume, as stated by the author, is "to give those who are inclined to use in earnest that oft-repeated expression, 'Universalism may do to live by, but will not sustain the soul in death,' an opportunity of learning the error of this statement, and to exhibit, in undeniable facts, the power and influence of the gospel in the hour of dissolution." The volume contains the closing scenes in the lives of more than sixty persons of every age, sex, and condition in life, who have embraced the doctrine of the universal holiness and happiness of man in a future state.

4.—*Emma, or the Lost Found;* or, Reliance on God Rewarded. New York: Dayton & Newman. 1842.

This little tale, which is, we believe, the first attempt of a young gentleman, a reporter for one of the New York daily journals, at authorship, evinces a capacity for this branch of fictitious narrative that may be improved by experience. It is a simple narrative, written in an agreeable and easy style, inculcating, in an attractive form, correct moral sentiments and right feelings. Its design and tendency are good, and we trust the author may be induced to devote his leisure to the production of a series of stories of a similar character.

5.—*Elements of Rhetoric;* comprising the substance of the article in the Encyclopedia Metropolitana; with Additions. By Richard Whately, D.D. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 12mo. pp. 347. 1842.

This treatise has already taken a high rank among works of the same class, and its adoption in our seminaries of learning generally, to the exclusion of more faulty works, will, we are confident, tend to promote the acquisition of this important branch of external education.

6.—***Animal Chemistry, or Organic Chemistry in its applications to Physiology and Pathology.*** By JUSTICE LIEBIG, M. D. etc., Professor of Chemistry in the University of Gressen. Edited from the Author's MSS. by WILLIAM GREGORY, M. D. etc. 12mo. pp. 352. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1842.

Dr. Liebig's object in the present work is to direct attention to the points of intersection of chemistry and physiology, and to point out those parts in which the sciences become, as it were, mixed up together. "It contains a collection of problems, such as chemistry at present requires to be resolved; and a number of conclusions drawn according to the rules of that science from such observations as have been made." It is stated in the preface as the intention of the author, before the lapse of two years, to follow the present work with another that will embrace the investigation of the food of man and animals, the analysis of all articles of diet, and the study of the changes which the raw food undergoes in its preparation; as, for example, in fermentation, (brewed,) baking, roasting, boiling, &c. The reputation of the author will be increased by the present publication, which will be found extremely useful not only to the scientific student, but to the business man, in the practical operations of life.

7.—***Random Shots and Southern Breezes;*** Containing Critical Remarks on the Southern States and Southern Institutions, with Semi-serious Observations on Men and Manners. By LOUIS FITZGERALD TASISTRO. 2 vols. 12mo. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1842.

We have been very agreeably employed in reading these rather oddly christened, but very instructive and interesting volumes, written with graceful ease, and embellished with that rich classical elegance of style so characteristic of every thing which falls from the pen of the author. Without assenting to the fidelity of all Mr. T.'s delineations of men, manners, and institutions, we find much that is new and striking. The occasional criticisms on art and literature spread over the work, evince a highly cultivated taste, and a just appreciation of the true and the beautiful; and will secure for the author cordial approbation from "those of a purely scholastic or scientific turn of mind." Mr. T. has, on the whole, made a book that will be very generally read, and one in which, all who read will find much to please and instruct.

8.—***Elements of Agriculture, Chemistry, and Geology.*** By JAMES F. W. JOHNSTON, M. A., F. R. S. 18mo. pp. 249. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1842.

This little treatise presents a familiar outline of the subjects of Agriculture, Chemistry, and Geology, as treated of more at large in the lectures of Mr. Johnston, which were noticed in the May number of the Merchants' Magazine. What in the "Elements" is necessarily taken for granted, or briefly noticed, is in the "Lectures" examined, discussed, or more fully detailed. Science, in an eminent degree, is brought, by our author, to bear upon agricultural improvement, and rendered clear and intelligible to the apprehension of the practical farmer, whose mind is free from the traditionary prejudices so naturally allied to ignorance

9.—***Library of Select Novels.*** 8vo. Harper and Brothers.

Under this title have appeared two of Bulwer's novels, "Pelham," and "The Disowned." The numbers of the "Library" will appear at intervals of a fortnight, or oftener, if occasion require. All of Bulwer's and James's novels are to be embraced in the series; a new work of the former, on which he is now engaged, entitled the "Last of the Barons," will be issued as soon as the last pages of the manuscript shall have been received from the author. The works introduced in this edition are to be given complete, without omission or abridgment. The two numbers already published are neatly printed on good paper, and sold at the low price of twenty-five cents each.

10.—***The Traveller's Own Book, to Saratoga Springs, Niagara Falls and Canada;*** containing Routes, Distances, Conveyances, Expenses, Use of Mineral Waters, Baths, Description of Scenery, etc. A Complete Guide for the Valetudinarian and for the Tourist, seeking for pleasure and amusement. With Maps and Engravings. By S. De VEAUX. New York: J. D. Lockwood. 1842.

This little volume forms, altogether, a very appropriate and convenient manual for the traveller visiting the places described in its pages. The author has introduced a variety of subjects, interesting from their locality—such as incidents of border warfare, and descriptions peculiar to the two great points of attraction of which he treats.

11.—***Henry of Ofterdingen;*** a Romance from the German of Novalit Frederick Von Hardenberg. 12mo. Cambridge: John Owen. 1842.

The author of this work was a young German who died before completing his twenty-ninth year. The tale itself presents few incidents of strong interest, and in this respect differs from most German fictions. To the great mass of readers, however, and particularly those fond of that strange, deep, Germanized, and highly poetical literature which is now blending itself with the highest order of English and American literature, the work before us cannot fail to be deeply interesting. The translation has been accomplished, so far as we are capable of judging, with ease and elegance, by a young gentleman of great promise, whose proficiency in several languages has attracted the attention and friendship of many of our most distinguished scholars and literary men.

12.—***Observations on the late Presidential Veto;*** together with a Plan for a change of the Constitution relative to this Power. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

This is an able pamphlet, and the first we have seen on the subject to which it relates; the arguments, although occasionally clothed in somewhat abstruse language and long sentences, are generally boldly and vigorously stated. The writer recommends an amendment to the Constitution which shall refer bills passed by Congress and objected to by the President of the United States, on the ground of unconstitutionality, to the Supreme Court, for final decision. If bills are objected to by the President on other grounds than unconstitutionality, they may become laws, if passed by a majority of two votes in the Senate, and by a majority in the House of Representatives equal to the average number of the representation of one state in that body.

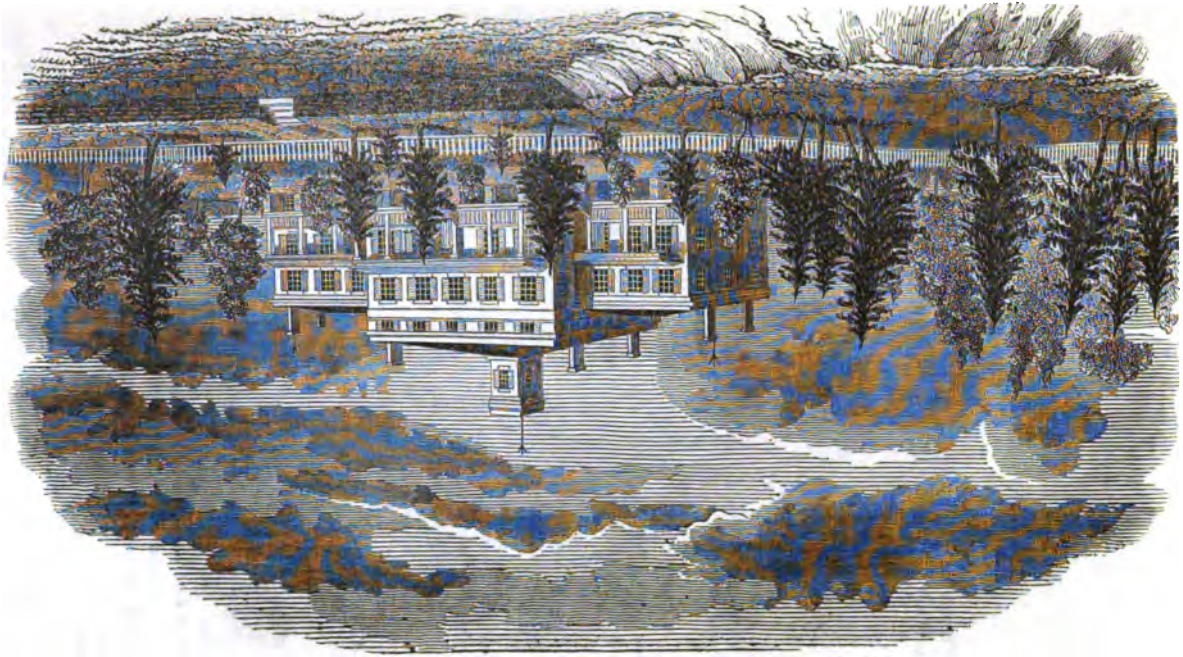
13.—***The Great Secret, or How to be Happy.*** By the Author of "Charles Linn." 18mo. pp. 310. New York: Dayton & Newman. 1842.

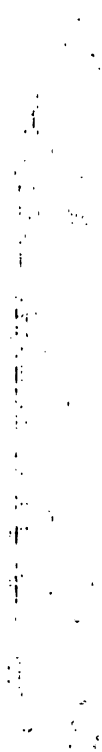
We opened this book at the first chapter, and did not lay it down until we had closed the last. It is one of those simple, truthful and affecting narratives which, although designed for the young, may be read with pleasure and profit by children of a larger growth. It is, moreover, an American tale, imbued with republican principles and feelings; and although deeply tinged with the religious sentiment, it is the Christian, and not the sectarian. The "great secret" here so happily illustrated, is defined to be—"Trust in the Lord, and do good"—an inspired aphorism that comprehends as much as all the creeds of all the sects, and is far more intelligible.

14.—***Oration delivered at the request of the city authorities of Salem, July 4, 1842.*** By CHARLES W. UPHAM, pastor of the First Church. 1842.

It is seldom that we notice Fourth of July orations, being for the most part ephemeral productions that perish with the occasion; but the present performance comes fresh from a mind enriched with original thoughts and stored with historic lore, and we only regret that we have not space to extract from its luminous pages, embracing as they do matters of permanent value, adorned with all the strength and grace of pure Anglo-Saxon diction.

IRVING INSTITUTE.—The engraving on the opposite page is a correct view of this popular Seminary of learning, which is located at Tarrytown, on the borders of the Hudson. This institution is under the management of William P. and Charles H. Lyon, gentlemen eminently well qualified to aid in the education of youth. Although not personally acquainted with the system of instruction adopted by these gentlemen, we are assured by those who have placed their children there, and in whose judgment we repose the utmost confidence, that they are entirely satisfied with the system of education in every respect, and the unremitted attention paid to pupils by the managers of the establishment.





HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

OCTOBER, 1842.

THE PROPERTY OF THE NEW-YORK LYCEUM.

ART. I.—THE COMMERCIAL HISTORY OF FRANCE.

III.

NECKER AND HIS ADMINISTRATION.

THE history of nations as commercial associations, has not yet become sufficiently extended to make room for a full deduction of those great fundamental truths on which the system of trade is based. Economists have supported their theories by the supposition of axioms and the illustration of analogies; statesmen have based their schemes on temporal policy or local convenience: but the truths which the theorist has often laid down, the measures which the statesman has often effected, have as yet been unable to obtain the sanction which a rule must possess which is drawn from an accurate observation of the whole phenomena which accompany it. The details of the commercial system of the civilized world are as yet too imperfect to allow of their safe generalization. Of the trading nations of antiquity, there are none whose history as a commercial people has come down to us; and of the two chief republics of the middle ages, Venice and Holland, we know but little else than that when their trade was unshackled by the restrictions of the municipal authorities, their wealth was great and their immunities splendid; that when the fetters of a protective or a retaliatory tariff were placed around their limbs, both their wealth and their immunities vanished. The great trading nations of our own era have not yet completed their cycle; the vicissitudes of heat and cold, of frost and fire, they have not yet fully experienced; and the material which we gather from their history must be partial and imperfect. The time is still to come when the whole revolution shall be complete, and when by the experience of seed-time and harvest, of decay and renewal, we can exhibit those cardinal laws which govern the universe, in the complication of its intestine machinery, as well as in the simplicity of its superficial structure.

It may be a great while before the observations of the political astronomer will be complete enough to enable him to detect the code that regulates that great economy to which his attention is directed. Centuries may pass

before the more obvious circles of the system are mapped down, and even then how infinite, how grand in their operations, and yet how exquisite in their detail, will be the courses of those inferior orbs which day after day will burst on his astonished vision! That there are certain vast physical laws which regulate men when grouped in masses, as they do men when separated in individuals—which prescribe the birth and watch over the infancy and guide the manhood of nations, as they do those of the men who compose them—the man who observes the surprising minuteness with which the harmony of the universe is preserved, can have little occasion to doubt. The silent but resistless influence of gravitation bears with proportional power on the mountain and on the sand that trickles down its flank. That supreme all-regulating power which adjusts the equilibrium of the atmosphere so delicately that it can buoy up the wings of the hugest eagle, while it feeds the lungs of the weakest child, can be with equal justice supposed to govern with similar precision the influences which act upon those momentous systems in which mankind have been, since their origin, divided. The material phenomena by which our eye may be assisted, are still but scanty and partial; but feeble as they are, they join in and are reconcilable with the supposition, that the same severity of law which adjusts the fate of man when in isolation, must determine the destiny of men when grouped into nations.

We have travelled from our path in illustrating a position with which we set out, in opening the series of papers on the commercial history of France, of which the present is a number. That the body corporate is surrounded by the same atmosphere of order as the substances which it contains, is a proposition which ought to require no illustration; and yet in the operations of government and in the details of trade, there can scarcely be found a man who acknowledges a supervision so efficient, or who, if he acknowledge it, will submit to be guided by its dictates. Principles in the political world, true as the justice from which they take their origin, have been disregarded whenever the spur of temporary advantage presses on the flanks of the ruler. Truths in the commercial world, speaking in a voice to which no man can be deaf, saying that the dealings between community and community should be as fair and unshackled as the dealings between merchant and merchant, have been neglected whenever the thunder of local interest is heard. Men forget that prosperity can only be secured by the adherence to those grand principles of justice on which the welfare of the world is based. It was for the purpose of illustrating by the history of one nation, at least, the existence of a truth both so powerful and so forgotten, that the present series of papers was commenced.

The condition of France under the various aspects of the feudal system, of the Bourbon dynasty, of the revolutionary tumults, and the imperial supremacy, affords a study to the political economist of the most inexhaustible richness. Never in the history of a single people has each note in the gamut been so rapidly struck, as in the short period that covered the despotism of the last Bourbons, the excesses of the revolutionary interregnum, the dictatorship of Napoleon, and the constitutional monarchy of Louis Philippe. In one generation we witness the king so supreme, that by a single line a massacre was ordered which destroyed, on the ground of religious difference alone, more of his subjects than were brought to the block in the whole of the bloody revolution that followed. In the next generation we witness the utter prostration of vital energy in the people

as a mass; we find that their wealth has been sucked from them, that the coarse but plentiful food which supports them has been snatched away and concentrated into the most costly and useless dishes for the amusement of the court palate; and we might be led to conclude, could a veil be dropped over the extraordinary convulsion that followed, that the nation itself, in its extreme degradation, had lost all sense of liberty, all power of redress. But scarcely had the generation which witnessed the tinsel pomp of Louis XIV., or the unalloyed licentiousness of Louis XV., been swept away, before the earth's surface was rent, and the injured elements sprang forth from beneath in the wildest confusion. To enter into a detailed account of revolutions so rapid and so pervading, was out of the limits and objects of this magazine; and while we have attempted to examine, at different periods, the condition of the realm at eras the most critical, it has been our endeavor to exhibit the views which were thus unfolded in a shape which would place them in the hands of the general observer, unclogged by the weight either of excessive detail or of exuberant speculation. In the opening article of the series, the position of the French nation at the period of the accession of Louis XV. was illustrated by the history of the Mississippi scheme, and the speculations by which it was surrounded. In the next number, the condition of the realm during the remainder of the reign of Louis XV. was exhibited, and we now proceed, in conformity with the plan with which we opened, to consider the changes which took place during the reign of his successor, as far as it will be developed by a view of the life and administration of the statesman who, in that stormy period, was at once the director of the finances of the state, and the projector of the first measures of the revolution which convulsed it.

To Necker, a place in a mercantile biography may not in strictness be due. Living rather as a politician than as a merchant, handling commerce more as a theorist than a man of business, better acquainted with the operations of finance among men in the mass, than with the dealings of trade among men in the detail, he rose with ambitious activity from the counting-house school to the prime minister's throne. In times of great commotion he had been drawn into action. Even perhaps had his thoughts never wandered beyond the walls of the Parisian exchange, had he resolutely determined to be a rich banker and nothing more, he would have found it hard to have resisted the temptations of the stream which would have flooded his bulwarks and undermined his determination. When popular sentiment was pouring on in one great continuous channel, when first and second and third estates combined to draw from his retirement the merchant by whom alone the finances of the realm could be disentangled, when the king sealed the general invitation with his royal mandate, it would have required a steady purchase on the shore to resist the current that was bearing so impetuously onward. Without being imbedded in the trade of the country, without having his attachments wound round its commercial moorings, it cannot be wondered that Necker yielded to the first surgings of the waters, and before they had sucked him from his home, gave himself voluntarily to their motions. In 1775, director of the royal treasury of France; in 1776, chief secretary of the finances; in 1777, prime minister; in 1782, forced into retirement, and returning with a baron's title to Switzerland; in 1789, recalled to his old seat at the head of the treasury; in 1790, after having invoked the general estates, and

after having involved the king in a controversy from which no hand could rescue him but that which dropped the guillotine, being once more dismissed to seek in private life that rest which in vain he had sought in public: his career becomes embodied in the history of the French revolution, and on the support of his life and services rests in a great measure the foundation of that stupendous edifice, which for fifty years covered Europe with its shadow.

Treasurer to Louis XVI. under the old economy, leader of the third estate in that which succeeded, what great and repulsive eras were thus united within a few years of a single lifetime! Necker is painted to us now as the man of middle measures, as the harlequin, who was clothed on one side in rags of darkness, and on the other in robes of light—as the daysman between the shadow of a buried monarchy and the substance of a young republic. But it should be kept in mind that Necker belonged to a middle period in the revolution, that he stood at the helm at the time of the turning of the wheel, and that as steersman, his great duty during the short time power was in his hands, was to turn the ship from the dangerous course she was pursuing, without plunging her into another of still greater danger. He was during that most critical moment of French history, the object of suspicion from both quarters. To the Bourbons he appeared as a demagogue in a court dress; to the revolutionists, as a monarchist in disguise. The very neutrality as to extreme measures which first brought him universal homage, at last brought him universal deprecation; and before the bread he had thrown on the waters returned, before the system into which he had reduced the finances of the realm had been given time to ripen, he was driven from the capital to vindicate in private that reputation which in public he had not been allowed to establish.

Jaques Necker was born in 1734, or according to one of his biographers, in 1732,* in Geneva, where his father had been for some time professor of civil law. Receiving an education which would have fitted him for the position which his father held, his natural aptitude for calculations, his ambition to rise to distinction in a republic, where wealth was the chief avenue to eminence, induced him to make use of his great natural parts, and the still greater learning with which he had encrusted them, in a field in which of all others they would be most useful. To the bold or the wise speculator, the commercial dealings of the continent offered a prize very splendid. The merchants of Europe were beginning to plant their stakes and to spread their nets over that wide ocean from which so rich a booty was to be reaped. In America, and the West Indian archipelago, in China, and the Asiatic peninsula, were adventurers roving with armies of foreign and native soldiers under their command; and already at the mouth of the Ganges, of the St. Lawrence, of the Mississippi, were station houses erected, which had bribed and enslaved the princes and the people of the land. The state of Louisiana had been cut up in lots, which were painted in the royal charts as spangled with gold mines, and had been sold by French commissioners in Mr. Law's banking-house at prices the most romantic. Dupleiss had not yet surrendered the vice-royalty of the east to Clive, the French supremacy in North India remained unabated, the French forts in America were strung like beads along the thread of the Mississippi and the St. Lawrence, till they girdled the breast of the Ameri-

* Histoire Literaire de Geneve, par Jean Sonebier, III. 90.

can continent, and to French speculators and French merchants a sphere of wealth and influence was opened, which drew upon its surface the great mass of those who had either money to invest or money to procure. When Necker became a clerk in his uncle's counting-house, in Geneva, he might have calculated upon a course of action more brilliant than that in which he was afterwards thrown; and it was with some reluctance that, as the Mississippi forts were one by one captured, and Dupleiss by battle after battle was driven from the Carnatic, he took an inferior place in the great banking establishment, of which M. Thelusson was the head. By his connection with the East India company, to whose notice he was introduced by a very able tract he published in 1769, in their defence, he had received large additions to his fortune; and as he became their official organ in their transactions with the government, he was enabled, through his knowledge of the probable tendency of the public funds, to invest most lucratively the capital he had acquired. Like M. Thiers, he has been accused of making use of his ministerial functions to depress or excite securities in which he was interested, though with very little reason, as the transactions which were called in question took place before he entered into the government, when the only information which he possessed was such as a keen mind might easily have gathered from the ordinary occurrences of the state. With means so great, and with faculties of using them so liberal, he retired from commercial life some time before he was called into action as a statesman. By his *Eloge de Colbert*, he gained the crown of the French academy a short period after he retired from his banking-house; and with his *Essai sur la Législation et le Commerce des Grains*, (1775,) he entered prominently into the contest that was then so furiously raging between the economists of the old and the new schools. He reached the goal by a road on which his rivals had not thought of entering. Dropping the confused metaphysical nomenclature which had made the study of finance a species of algebraic transcendentalism, he put down statistics in round numbers, he dressed working facts in working clothes, and he levelled his tracts at the comprehension of every man who, be he king or peasant, had been baffled by the charlatanism of the old philosophers. That he was conclusive, we may doubt; but that he was clear, admits of no question—as the leaders of the people and the dependents of the crown seized on the one idea he uncovered, and locked it up exultingly in the strong place where they kept their household truths. Through the Marquis of Pezay, he obtained the ear of royalty itself, and in a short period transmitted to the king an exposition of the finances of the realm, which was plain enough to be understood by their royal receiver, and was flattering enough to accelerate the elevation of the man who had reduced them into system. In the end of 1776, Necker was associated with Taboureau, in the comptroller-generalship of the finances; and eight months afterwards, by Taboureau's resignation, he was left without a colleague in an office, at that momentous period, the most important in the realm.

It was then for the first time that the Geneva banker was brought within the presence of the descendant of Henry IV. and the child of Maria Theresa. Great names must have stood on the wall before him, as he touched the carpet that had been trod by St. Louis, by the protestant king of Navarre, and by their recreant and apostate successors. In that little chamber had been determined the adventures of French royalty from the

first crusade of Louis III. to the last debauch of Louis XV.; and who can wonder that the protestant reforming minister felt his limbs fettered in every fresh motion, by the cob-webs which formed the archives of the cabinet? "I still remember," he said, a long time after, "the steep dark staircase to M. de Maurepa's apartments, up which I used to mount with fear and despondency, not very clear how a new idea might succeed with him, which occupied all my attention, and which often tended to produce an increase of the revenue by some just but rigid curtailment. I still remember that little cabinet, shaded by the roof of the Versailles palace, but above the king's apartments, and which by its compression and loftiness, really seemed the essence (and a very refined essence too) of human vanity and ambition. There was I obliged to discourse on reform and economy to a minister grown old in the pomps and formalities of a court. I remember the address I was obliged to use to succeed; and how, after many repulses, I sometimes obtained a little attention to the public, as a recompense for the resources I found in the midst of war. I still remember the bashfulness I felt, when I introduced in the discourses I ventured to address to him, some of those grand moral ideas with which I was animated. I then appeared as gothic to this old courtier as Sully did to the young ones, when he appeared at the court of Louis XIII." Ignorant of the rules of courts, unacquainted with the perquisites of royalty, who can wonder that Necker found himself out of gear the moment he became part of the motive power of the carriage of state? Set about with cumbrous wheels and heavy trappings, the principles of action he developed could produce little effect on a system so monstrous and so unmanageable. Never were two motive powers more antagonistical than those which were brought into play by the queen and the new minister. Plain, opinionated, severe in his manners and tastes, attaching an exorbitant value to the habits of punctuality and vigor, by which his great fortune had been acquired, Necker was an object of amazement and dislike to the council which had taken its stand around the remaining bulwarks of royal prerogative. Like an artisan, whose mechanical endowments were the sole cause of his introduction to court, was he regarded by the plumed and vizored champions of the queen of France; and as he approached the old and gorgeous turrets of the castle, as he lifted his hand to tear down a useless tower, or a tottering wall, his limbs were fettered and his action cramped, till he gave up the task in despair. Well would it have been for the citadel of royalty if the bastile had been levelled by the hand of reform, before it had been torn down by the storm of rebellion!

The character of Marie Antoinette can never be fully understood. The lovely drapery in which she was drawn by Mr. Burke, in the most splendid of his writings, clings to her with a tenacity which no hand is sacrilegious enough to disturb. It is said that when lately, on the exhumation of Charles I., the remains of the beheaded monarch were brought to light, his features were found unshrunk in their original quiet beauty, while the calm blue eye, which to the royal painters of his day had been an object of so great study, remained canonized by time in that same expression of sedate composure in which the artist had delighted to represent it. With recollections still more touching has the memory of Queen Marie Antoinette been associated. We look upon her as she appeared to the statesman-philosopher of the age, as she shone upon him from amongst the mist of court ceremony just sixteen years before the consummation which fell

back on its originators with so terrible a recoil. We drop those intermediate scenes of intrigue and oppression, of deception and violence, which were spread out by the hand of the Austrian council who surrounded the royal chamber, and we drop them in justice to a principle of humanity, which can never be violated without punishment. The execution of the king and queen, in that last terrible act of the drama, did more than balance the account, in the sympathies at least, of mankind. By them, personally, it was not deserved. By the king, personally, it was wholly unmerited. Kind and humane in his sensibilities, just though vacillating in his opinions, he had been willing from the beginning, had his wishes been allowed full play, to concede the more moderate demands of the reformers. But to concede or to reform, when the whole system was corrupt, would have required powers far greater than those which he possessed. The abuses of his ancestors he could not remove without tearing down the temple that sheltered him; and like an ancient column which supports on its solitary pedestal the accumulated weight of frieze and roof, he became conscious that each stone that was removed from the shaft, each gewgaw that was removed from the capital, would accelerate that ruin which had already swiftly advanced. Gathering himself, therefore, within his robes, the victim, not of his own error, but of the crimes of his ancestors, he prepared himself in calmness for the storm which he might have hastened, but which he could never have prevented.

The finances of the realm at the time of the accession of Necker, were confused beyond description. Like the princess in the fable, who feared that her web might be finished before the time when it was to be displayed, the Bourbon financiers had tangled in the night season far more than they had extricated in the day. An administration of fifty years, without wars and without wants, it was stated by Raband,* would have been scarcely sufficient to restore the harmony of the system. It was with the reduction of the most prominent exuberances, that Necker commenced the work. By dint of the hosts of sinecurists who were stationed at the mouth of each stream of revenue which poured in upon the crown, and who sucked from it more than half its treasures, the revenue had been diminished as the machinery of taxation increased. Before the coin which was deposited in the hands of the tax-collector at one end of the kingdom, had reached the hands of the tax-receiver at the other, it was clipped and ground so successfully, that not only its quantity but its quality became uncertain. The *Intendans des Finances* constituted a regiment which was among the best paid, and the least efficient of the king's treasury guards; and one of the first acts of the new minister was to disband the *Intendans des Finances* at a blow. Composed, however, of members of the most ancient and most wealthy families, it was not without a struggle that the officers of the dismissed cohort consented to leave their posts; and it may be questioned whether the bitter repugnance with which Necker's measures were received by the nobility in general, may not have arisen from the personal offence which his retrenchments afforded. Too weak to support the king by the communion of their inherent strength, too proud to acquire fresh power by the reduction of the most odious of their pretensions, the peers of the land, by their clamorous opposition to the slightest reform, invited and anticipated, in the weakest quarter, the attack which was soon to burst

* History of the Revolution, p. 84.

upon them. They might have fallen back on their ancient reserved rights; they might, in conjunction with their king, have done battle under cover of their feudal moats and parapets; but with a folly which both increased and exposed their weakness, they marched out in full state from their fortresses, and courted the war on the most untenable precincts of their most exaggerated prerogative.

It was at this period that the French participation in the American war commenced. Great must have been the feeling of rivalry against Great Britain, and great the pressure of popular sympathy with the United States from without, to have induced the court of Louis XVI., incrusted with aristocratic prejudices, and entangled with financial embarrassment, to enter into the lists, yoked with a score of rebel colonies. The queen had been brought up with that high-bred horror of reform which characterized the Austrian family, and yet the queen offered her crown-jewels, the very jewels over which clouds of suspicion so long had hung, to advance the cause of insurgents, whose principles she must have detested. Perhaps there was a deeper motive at play than pique towards Great Britain. A little compromise so made with the popular party, might have diverted to another channel that ambition which would otherwise have struck at home. The fish-women would have had no ammunition to scatter on the train of domestic sedition, if their powder had been already shipped across the Atlantic. The young nobility of the realm would have exhausted the stock of their republicanism by planting it in the wilds of the new world. Necker was pressed by every consideration which court influence could bear, to force loans which should assist so desirable a consummation. In the course of his administration five hundred and thirty millions (23,187,500*l.*) were borrowed, on terms certainly in themselves advantageous, though as they were swelled in the course of ten years by subsequent loans under succeeding administrations, to the amount of fifteen hundred millions, (65,625,000*l.*) they laid the corner-stone for that great edifice of guilt and oppression which nothing but revolution could remove.

It has been said that when the sense of governmental responsibility is weakened by the diffusion of the governing power over a great mass of points, the vigor of action, as well as of the energy of conscience, will in a proportionable degree be diminished. Republics, we are told, must be faithless, because the inherent honesty which is claimed to belong to man as an individual, does in no sense belong to mankind in a community. Conscience, like electricity, runs in a single indivisible current, and the moment it is scattered, it loses the virtue of its strength. As a nation, we seem tacitly admitting the justice of the theory. It is forgotten that as yet our faith has been unspotted, and that from the organization of our government, debts contracted under pressures the most serious, and in markets the most costive, have been paid to the remotest penny, with a punctuality and completeness which in the history of the world has never been equalled. Compare, for instance, the fate of the three great public debts which were incurred by the three nations who formed parties in the American war. France, the model of an old feudal despotism, exhibiting at the period a spectacle of concentration unrivalled in the continent of Europe, entered into the market under the lead of a financier of consummate ability and experience; and yet France, with a people of great enterprise, with a country of great richness, with political influence une-

qualled in its generation, repudiated by the action of king, parliament, and people, the debt it had so sacredly assumed. Great Britain, with internal wealth still greater, with foreign resources almost as great, by a species of management which continues the scar on the administration of Mr. Pitt, has postponed without limit the liquidation of the loans which were at the same period taken. If the word repudiation should ever be introduced into our vocabulary, if it is to be bandied from mouth to mouth as an item of every-day adjustment, and its occurrence as a possible contingency, let it be remembered that it is limited in its origin to the present generation; that it was cradled among us in the *manhood* of the republic; that in the weakness of our infancy it was never once contemplated, and that it was reserved for the present moment, when we have quadrupled our wealth, our territory, and our people, to interpolate in that noble code which so far has directed us, a principle so disastrous and so dishonorable.

In the beginning of 1781, the influence of Necker had risen to a pitch which made him at once an object of idolatry to the people and of suspicion to the court. Imprudent as now appears the system of loans which stimulated to unnatural luxuriance the credit of the country, their immediate effect was to inspire that general confidence which the influx of wealth from abroad must create. But Necker found that while he was the minister who of all others was held forth to the public view as supreme, he was stripped in the cabinet of all power except so much as was contained in the mere machinery of the treasury department. A seat in the privy council was a necessary attribute of his office; and though he was partially disqualified from its possession by his religion, he recollected that Sully before him had been both protestant and prime minister, and he consequently, in April, 1781, made a formal application to the king for the honors of the cabinet. Maurepas was the nominal premier, and to Maurepas the superficial distribution of the crown patronage belonged; but the old minister had been too prudent to act precipitately on his own authority, or perhaps too jealous of Necker to act at all for his elevation, and he consequently advised the ambitious comptroller to apply in person to the queen. The result might have been easily foreseen. Marie Antoinette had suffered Necker to remain in office in the distance; but a near approach to the crown was more than she could allow. An answer was asked for—an answer was given, and, in an evil hour for both king and queen, the proposition of Necker was rejected, and he himself banished to his estate of St. Owen.

It was when in the forced retirement that followed, that the principal essays of Necker were written. By his *Compte Rendu*, he took off the veil which had so long hung over the financial operations of the realm, and displayed the character and operations of his short ministerial supremacy; while by his *De l'Administration des Finances*, he entered into a labored exposition of the whole internal machinery of the French monetary system. Incorrect as must have been some of the details, in a mass so cumbrous and confused, wild as may have been some of the theories he espoused, he possessed a faculty which was unknown to his predecessors. The scheme which he placed before him he understood distinctly, and when once the task was undertaken, he was able to make it understood by others. His report was read throughout France, and as it was the only work of the kind that had ever been comprehended, its author was looked

upon as the only man who ever could comprehend the subject. The distresses of the people at large, in truth, as well as the embarrassments of the court treasury, proved before long that the master-hand was absent from the councils. The great necessity of Louis XVI. as well as of Charles I., was money; and so great had become the demands of the government, so great the deficiency in the treasury, that the body politic was obliged to seek its daily food by the most spasmodic labors. The approaches of dissolution were daily becoming more visible. Necker had for a short time suppressed the more obvious symptoms of disease, and had perhaps destroyed some of its seeds; but during the unbroken supremacy which Calonne afterwards obtained, a relapse took place that placed the patient beyond the hope of recovery. Both king and people became clearly conscious that some steps should be taken by which the treasury could be filled and the nation relieved. The archbishop of Sens, after having ousted Calonne from the ministry, had attempted to reorganize the government, but after an administration as short as it was disastrous, he was forced to leave the helm. That the recall of Necker was necessary, was on all sides conceded; and both the queen and the Count d'Artois consented so far to suspend their private dislike as to assist in the re-instalment of the high-priest, who a few years before they had driven so ignominiously from the temple.

It was under circumstances far different from those which had surrounded him in his first ministry, that Necker resumed the direction of public affairs. The threads which then he had reduced into partial order, had become inextricably tangled; the treasury was involved beyond the probability of restoration; the king had become callous from the want of success which his reforms had met; the queen desperate, from the check which her ambition had encountered; the old statesmen, who were masters at least of the details of business, had left their posts, and the state was rushing rapidly into the whirlpool of hopeless bankruptcy. The people, too, were changed, and in the essential attributes of their character, presented features utterly at variance with those which they once exhibited. Light songs were exchanged for pasquinades, dances for revolutionary assemblages; and at every market-place, at each walk throughout the great metropolis, might be met groups, not occupied in games or in those cheerful pastimes in which the spirits of the nation had once effervesced, but conversing with severe earnestness on the insolvency of the treasury, the apathy of the court, or the oppression of the government. For the first time the people had become politicians. Unaccustomed as yet to choose a captain out of their own ranks, they had pitched on the Duke d'Orleans as the chieftain of their clan; and though his pusillanimity was well known, and his treachery generally suspected, they had honored him with the name, Tribune of the People, and had recognised him as the personification of the revolutionary spirit which then was agitating France. The resources of the people were in fact almost exhausted. The granaries of the kingdom were empty. The theatres had become the market-place for the traffic of revolutionary opinions. Scarcely a man could be found in the lower classes who would defend the government against the charge of cruel and deliberate tyranny; and though the word guillotine had not yet been heard, those who looked well around on the savage frown and the clenched hand of the men and women of the third estate, might have read the signs of the terrible convulsion that followed. Well did the queen

cry, as she rode through the crowded streets, "They curse me still more than once they blessed me!" It may seem strange, that with her remarkable tact and her hereditary determination, she had not at an early period discovered and suppressed the outbreak. But the people as an acting power had never entered into the calculations of the politicians of her generation. Warily did they weigh the pretensions of each foreign power or of each domestic prince; but the great fundamental authority of all, they disregarded. Timely concessions might have crushed the revolution; but however willing the king was, from his constitutional kindness, to conciliate his subjects, neither his counsellors nor his queen thought the matter worthy of consideration. The nation saw that the government was utterly indifferent to their sufferings; they were starving in masses, without pity or relief, and they knit together their sinews with terrible earnestness, to grind to powder the authority which had for centuries consumed their wealth and trampled on their liberties.

When Necker passed through the highway of the nation, on his return from St. Owen, he became in some measure conscious of the disasters that were brooding over the state. Not that he flinched in his attachment to the crown, or that he estimated the probability of revolution, but it became evident to him that reform on a large scale was necessary, and he determined to take measures to secure it. The first minister since the days of Sully who had looked upon the people as a component portion of the state, he felt bound to take them at once into council, and to secure their advice in that great work which he saw would be useless without their co-operation. His first step was to recall the banished members of the Parisian parliament, and to restore to that ancient and efficient body the privileges which had been torn from it by the odious measure of the *cours plenieres*. He next endeavored to replenish the treasury, which at the time of his reinstatement contained but 500,000 livres, (21,875*l.*;) and by means of successful loans and bold retrenchment, he was able in a great measure to resuscitate the credit of the realm; and thus, in his own words, "by sailing with a side wind, by using all possible circumspection, and employing every exertion in a confined sphere, I was able to direct the feeble vessel of state without wreck or damage, till the assemblage of the states-general." The scarcity of food throughout the kingdom was in some measure relieved by bounties on corn, which had the effect of temporarily exciting the market; and though, according to the ancient policy of trade, they were met in Great Britain by a corresponding prohibition on exportation, they led, during the time they were allowed to operate, to a condition of comparative plenty, that increased the popularity of the new minister, and gave him a supremacy almost unbroken over both king and parliament.

It was in the beginning of 1788 that he laid before the cabinet the great measure of the invocation of the states-general. For many long generations of undisturbed tyranny had the name of that ancient body been forgotten, and perhaps had it not been connected with some of the most glorious periods of French history, it never again would have been heard from the mouth of a French monarch. Neither by the minister who proposed nor the king who adopted the new specific of relief, was its character understood or its bearing estimated. To Necker it seemed of value, as incorporating once more in the operative strength of government the dormant energies of the people at large. To the queen it seemed plausible,

as a spectacle by which the vanity of the people would be flattered and their assistance procured. Both court and minister proceeded in the most stupendous work in which France as a united government had ever been engaged, with a thoughtlessness which can only be understood by the fact that both regarded the proposed assembly rather as an empty pageant than as an independent legislature. Heralds were employed to discover the dress which in feudal days each rank had worn in the great convocation; and while each feather was weighed and each epaulette adjusted, the grand question was forgotten, whether the three estates should set apart or together. Necker had provided that the third estate should contain a double representation, and that it should be equal, therefore, in numbers to the other two united; but from unconsciousness either of the terrible power of the agent he was bringing into play, or of what was in fact the most important point at issue in its constitution, he left the manner of its deliberation open to its own adjustment. The great preponderance of the third estate, which is exhibited in the following table, ought to have been sufficient in itself to have aroused the attention of government, had they looked upon the assembly itself as of any other importance than that which belonged to it as an empty theatrical exhibition.

The clergy were represented by—

48 bishops and archbishops.
35 abbés, canons, or beneficed clergymen; and
208 curés, or clergymen having livings with the cure of souls.

291

The nobility by—

18 grand baillis, senechaux, or heads of districts.
224 gentlemen, or men of family; and
28 magistrates of inferior courts.

270

The Tiers Etat by—

2 ecclesiastics, or beneficed clergymen.
12 gentlemen of family.
16 physicians.
18 mayors, or heads of corporations.
162 officers of bailliages, or inferior courts of justice.
176 bourgeois, merchants, land-owners, and farmers.
212 lawyers.

598

On the 5th of May, 1789, on the avenue to the cathedral church of St. Louis, was seen early in the morning a cavalcade which was soon in its march to tread over the crown and the government of the most splendid monarchy in Europe. In their gorgeous court attire, drawn from the designs of the tournaments of those days of chivalry which then were closing, were seen at the head of the procession nobility and clergy; while behind them, in the little black stuff cloak of serfs, marched the body which so soon was to crush in the palm of its hand the estates which preceded it. The Duke of Orleans, in compliance with the scheme of treacherous self-aggrandizement which he had adopted, had separated from

his hereditary order, and had marshalled himself as deputy from one of the provincial towns in the ranks of the third estate. On a lofty throne in front of the altar the king was seated, with the queen on the right side, and the princes of the blood, with the exception of Orleans, collected in a semicircle about him; while the clergy and the noblesse, occupying the two aisles of the church in front of the throne, threw, by their glittering robes and their waving plumes, a melancholy contrast on the mass of the third estate, who were crowded in the background. From the swinging pulpit which hung over the great congregation, a sermon was preached by the Bishop of Nancy, on the importance of the connection between church and state. In a speech from the throne, the king exhibited a rapid statement of the condition of the revenue, and of the necessities of the crown. M. Barretin, keeper of the seals, as chancellor of the realm, after having informed the assembly that the king had granted a double representation to the third estate, but had left it to the members themselves to determine whether they should sit together or apart, was followed by Necker, who, in an oration of three hours length, which was listened to with an attention in great contrast to that which had been paid to the king and the keeper of the seals, laid down a condensed statement of the finances of the realm, and of the means necessary to adjust them. Standing as daysman between two opposite parties, it was natural that he fell behind the expectations of both; and masterly as was his speech acknowledged to be on all sides, the reforms it suggested were called by the court revolutionary, and by the third estate inefficient.

On the 17th of June, 1789, the first authoritative step in the revolution was taken. Day after day the *tiers etat* had rejected every proposition for legislative action, unless the two remaining estates should join it in the same hall; and at last, finding both clergy and nobility obstinate in their opposition to a course so dangerous, it resolved itself, with the assistance of a few seceders from the other orders, into a body which assumed the attributes of supreme legislation, under the name of National Assembly. The illegality of the existing taxes was at once proclaimed, though by a qualifying vote their provisional collection was permitted; the national debt was revised and scrutinized, and reforms were commenced not only in the abuses of the ministry, but in the prerogatives of the crown. The king attempted a partial compromise, but his propositions were immediately rejected, and Necker for the first time became conscious that revolution, and not reform, was the object of the third estate. Hastening to Louis, who was then at Marli, he laid before him a constitution, which, though liberal, would have secured to the crown its most important prerogatives, and as soon as a cabinet council could be called, advised the king to establish the reformed government under the solemnity of a royal sitting.

It was then that the unfortunate waywardness of the queen's disposition most signally showed itself. Possessed of an influence almost supreme over the king's judgment, she used her power to exasperate and not to soften the elements which were arrayed in opposition. Never willing to make concessions except at the knife's edge, she accompanied every reform with qualifications which either abrogated its effect or embittered its reception. What she gave she took pains to show she gave with a bad grace, and under every concession there was placed a subterfuge which was meant to destroy its efficiency, and which was calculated to eradicate every spark of confidence which might have been placed in the sincerity

of her intentions. When Necker appeared in council with his scheme for a new constitution, she accepted it in the king's name with apparent readiness; the main outlines were agreed upon, and the time and circumstances settled of the royal sitting, through which they were to be promulged. The minister was led to believe that his propositions had been adopted by the court, and were to be exhibited to the assembly; but scarcely had a day elapsed, scarcely had he been allowed time to retire to his house to digest the inferior details of the system, before he was officially informed, that at the sitting next day to be held, the king had determined to present, not the constitution which had been determined on in council, but a scheme of government which, though nominally of the same character, was instinct with principles which would render its bearing dubious, and its operation nugatory.

There was but one course remaining for Necker to pursue. To appear at the sitting and to sanction a system about which he had not been consulted, and to whose features he was opposed, would have been unworthy of the trust reposed in him; and when, on the 20th of June, the day on which the clergy were to have joined the third estate, the king and council took their place at the royal sitting, together with that splendid retinue of princes of the blood and nobility which on state occasions accompanied the crown, the place of the chief minister was vacant. In even the inferior machinery of the sitting, the absence of the master-hand was susceptible. Gorgeous canopies were assigned to *noblesse* and clergy, but the *tiers etat* were obliged to shelter themselves from the rain in a common out-house; and even when admitted into the body of the hall, were crowded into the aisles without being afforded the common convenience of seats. When the king arose to exhibit the new constitution, he accompanied it at once with a proviso which opposed in anticipation a formidable barrier to its reception by the body to whom it was offered. The proceedings of the national assembly were peremptorily annulled, and though a qualified liberty of the press was proposed, though *lettres-de-cachet* were surrendered so far as was compatible with the interests of the state, though the consent of the national representatives was made necessary to taxation, and the *corvees* were to be abolished; yet still, by the revocation of the authority of the national assembly, and the proviso, that in future the three orders should sit apart, the virtue of the partial concessions which accompanied the speech was destroyed. Notwithstanding an order from the king in person, that the assembly should immediately separate, the third estate, with a majority of the clergy and a few of the noblesse, continued in session; and after an active and vehement debate, passed a series of resolutions, declaratory of their adherence to their former decrees, and denouncing the penalties of high treason against those who should attempt to violate the liberty of the persons of their members. It became clear that two distinct authorities were in existence within the bosom of the state, and that unless a broad and comprehensive plan of union could be devised, civil war would be the consequence.

Had the king reposed that confidence in the judgment of his chief minister which both Necker's experience and his character deserved, the succeeding disasters of the revolution might have been averted, and a government formed on a rational and secure basis. Necker was, in fact, the only man who could then have saved the monarchy; but with that singular fatality which accompanied the court at every crisis of importance, he was driven

ignominiously from the ministry at the time when his usefulness was greatest and his influence most unbounded. Swayed by the vain expectation of governing once more without an elected parliament, or an independent ministry, the queen had by her counsels procured Necker's banishment from the realm within twenty-four hours after the royal sitting, under the pretence that he had been engaged in intrigues with the opposition. He was at dinner when the order came, and so unexpected to him was its burden, that he was for some time at a loss to determine on its truth; but becoming conscious that he had drawn on his head the displeasure of both king and court, and seeing no alternative between prompt obedience and unqualified rebellion, he surrendered himself implicitly to the king's commands, and left at once both the ministry and the kingdom.

Had the king chosen the most rapid means for the destruction of the government, he could have taken no course so suitable as the dismission of Necker. The courier who brought the news from Versailles to Paris, was hooted as a madman; but as soon as the intelligence was authenticated, the incredulity of the people was changed to astonishment and indignation. The assembly declared that the blow struck at the person of the minister, was aimed at the liberties of the state; and so great was the determination with which they proceeded, that the new ministry, without waiting till a resolution had passed, requiring the king to recall Necker, resigned in a body their seats. The king, deserted by his old supporters, and forced by the national assembly to compliance, or civil war, had no alternative; and the disgraced minister had hardly reached his journey's end, before he was met by a courier, informing him of his reinstatement. "I am convinced," said he in reply to the king's compulsory invitation for him to resume office, "I am convinced that this is your wish, since you deign to assure me of it;" while to the assembly he made use of terms which showed that he considered his recall as originating with them, and not with the court. "Worthily to reply," was his expression, "to the ennobling mark of your regard, far exceeds my feeble powers; but at least, gentlemen, I may be allowed to offer you the homage of my respectful gratitude."* With a tribute little short of that paid to a successful conqueror, he was ushered from town to capital; and by consent of both king and people, seemed raised to an eminence which subjected the empire to his control. With power far greater than before, with an influence apparently irresistible over the assembly, and with entire supremacy in council, on the 29th of July, 1789, he assumed once more the direction of the state.

Had the prime minister looked beyond the splendid arch which was erected for his triumphal entry into Paris, he would have seen a precipice whose perils were unavoidable. Aiming himself at a constitutional monarchy, he stood alone between the opposing currents of the adherents—on the one hand, of the old regime, and on the other, of revolutionary encroachments. Without sympathies with either party, without supporters on either side, he found that he became acceptable to one rank, only so far as he was instrumental in humbling the other, and that the moment he ceased to be a party man, he was discarded by both. The king hated him because he wished to cut away the excrescences of the crown; the commons hated him, because he had written a book in defence of the no-

* Necker on the French Revolution, I. 225.

bility; the nobles hated him because, without belonging to them, he had taken supremacy over them: and though all factions were willing to bid high for his support so long as they supposed he might be made an ally, as soon as they found that he could not be bought, they all conspired in his overthrow. When on his return to the ministry, Necker found on the surface every element united in his favor, he had not penetrated a great distance into the materials around him, before he found that the support afforded him was treacherous and transient. Carried on the shoulders of the mob from Paris to Versailles, he soon discovered that his throne was uncertain, and that the bearers, who at one moment pressed forward to lift him to the skies, would be ready in the next to toss him in the mud. The treasury he found bankrupt, and no stimulus, however violent, could force from capitalists the money necessary to its recovery. A loan had been reported to the assembly to the amount of thirty millions of livres, at the rate of five per cent, with a certain bonus at which it might have been taken, but the majority, not anxious that the credit of the government should be placed on a firm basis, lowered the interest to four and a half per cent, and ensured the failure of the scheme. A tax to the amount of one fourth of the income of each man in the state was proposed and sanctioned; but tacked, as it was, by the legislature, to provisions to which it was known the king must disagree, it never went into operation. A national bank was next established, built on the decayed arches of the *Caisse d'Escompte*, and connected with the sale of church and crown lands on the basis of the funds expected to arise, from which notes were issued under the name of *assignats*. Every means for restoring the credit of the realm had been tried in vain,—every specific for the re-establishment of the currency had in vain been administered, and the minister, after a year of fruitless labors, found his popularity destroyed, his usefulness lost, and his reputation withered. The only course remaining was for him to leave office, and that course he followed.

They who were present with Necker when he was told that the national assembly had suffered his resignation to pass by without notice, have stated that his astonishment was even greater than that with which he had received notice of his late unexpected recall. He had thrown up the seals, not because he had accomplished his work, but because the materials he had required had been refused him; and when, on the 4th of September, 1790, he wrote to the legislature informing them of the necessity of his resignation unless the obstacles before him should be removed, he still expected that by the same acclamation with which he had been invited to office, he would be pressed to remain. But Necker had mistaken the dispositions of the men with whom he was to deal. He had fought with the revolutionists in their first initiatory battles, he had secured for them the vantage-ground of free representation on which they stood, but they saw that further he was unwilling to go, and they discarded him as soon as they discovered that he was opposed to the destruction of the government. Deserted by his adherents, forgotten by the king, disliked by the people, he retired to Copet with a silence in strange contrast with his late triumphant procession to the capital; and in the beginning of 1804, after fourteen years of retirement, which had been occupied in part with a laborious review of his administration, and in part in preparation for that great change he was about to experience,—after having met with every vicissitude of fortune between the poverty of a clerkship and the

wealth of a principality,—between the omnipotence of a prime minister and the helplessness of an exile,—he died in the city of Geneva, in the seventieth year of his age, with the testimony of a good conscience, and unbroken respect of those whose respect was worthy of possession.*

In a generation of peace and of intelligence, Necker, as minister, would have reached that goal of success which his integrity and his parts deserved. Not wedded to any one school—not entangled by the dangerous though brilliant theories of Colbert—not bewildered by the loose philosophy of the revolutionary economists, he applied the maxims of business to the operation of state, and the great law of honesty, which, as a merchant, he had practised, as a statesman he endeavored to bring into execution. Desperate was the condition of the treasury when the accounts were subjected to his supervision, and yet with a clearness which is astonishing when we reflect on the massiveness of the ruin which was laid before him, he succeeded in a few months, not only in exhibiting a fair statement of its condition, but an adequate scheme for its reconstruction. In the great treasury book of the French monarchy there had been fraud after fraud, error after error,—ministers had wiped off debts, not by a payment of capital, but by a transfer of figures; paymasters had cloaked their own profligacy by an entanglement of accounts; false entries had been made on every page, and accidental errors on every column; and yet, on his first accession to office, the Geneva merchant succeeded in displaying to the government the true and exact condition of the financial state of the realm. Disdaining all temporary remedies, except as means of temporary assistance, he struck at the only means of extrication, and proposed, with a manliness and decision that attracted at once support, a tax of one fourth of each individual income, as the only means for the liquidation of the debt which then dragged the government to the earth. Had that tribute been paid, the old French monarchy, not attired in the feudal jewelry, the cumbrous damasks, the licentious finery of the ancient system, but dress-

* Necker as an author alone, was worthy of the splendid criticism of Madame de Stael. In the sphere of literature and theological inquiry, his works would have raised him to a distinction as a reasoner, as high as that which he attained in the political world as a financier. His *Compte Rendu*, and his *De l'Administration des Finances*, were built on the model of the expositions of the English chancellors of the exchequer, but with the exception of Mr. Pitt's great speeches on the opening of the budget, there were none which can be placed on the same level with the reports of the French minister. The *De l'Importance des Opinions Religieuses*, was the soundest and most useful of his tracts, and exhibits a degree of metaphysical research, of profound theology, mingled with an amount of practical piety rarely to be found in the composition of a man whose temptations had been so great, and whose advantages so equivocal. In his *Du Pouvoir Executif*, he presented the fairest and most rational defence of the French monarchy as he would have made it; and had his suggestions been listened to, the more terrible outbreaks of the revolution would have been averted. It was a great gratification to Necker to know that his last work of importance, his *Reflections addressed to the French nation*, reached the eye of the sovereign in whose behalf it was written at the period of his greatest distress, and that in the last moment of his life Louis XVI. acknowledged without reserve the rectitude and fidelity of a minister to whom if he had listened fully, he might have turned aside the consummation which was poured on his head and on his inheritance.

ed in the plain robes which it suits a constitutional monarchy to wear, would still have been in endurance. So intimately woven are the threads of trade and government, of public debt and of private enterprise, that had once the treasury been cleared—had once the exorbitant abuses of the crown been curtailed—had once the debts abroad and at home been liquidated, that venerable structure which buried in its ruin so much of the wealth and of the blood of France, might have still continued with its foundation unimpaired. Perhaps, however, the purgation of the revolution and of the empire was necessary for the production of that more equal result which the constitutional monarchy of Louis Philippe exhibits. Two great lessons have been taught, which are enough to reconcile us to the exaggerated terrors of the revolution ;—that, in the first place, there is a justice which wreaks on governmental oppression that same judgment which is pronounced on individual crime ; and that, in the second place, there is a law of right and wrong in the commercial dealings of nations in the abstract, which must be obeyed at the hazard of the integrity of the state.

In the series of papers of which the present is a number, it was our intention to display, by turns, the operation of the distinct commercial systems which are embodied, first, in the despotism of the Bourbons; second, in the anarchy of the revolution; third, in the empire of Napoleon; and fourth, in the monarchy of Louis Philippe. The point which we have at present passed by, has been one which, from the mass of detail which it brings together, we have been unable to reduce and digest in the system which we at first laid down ; but if it be taken in relation to the stages that precede and follow it—if the debt-paying administration of Necker be considered in connection with the debt-contracting administration of Colbert, or the debt-repudiating administrations of the revolution,—it will be found to contribute its own share of illustration to the great principles which the political economist is so willing to preach, and which the economical politician is so unwilling to practise. It was shown in previous papers, that by the systematic interference of the old French government in the affairs of trade, the treasury was emptied, the people impoverished, the commerce of the realm destroyed. It is shown in this, that the energies of the body politic, enfeebled by the operations through which the debt was contracted, were unable to liquidate it when presented for payment, and that by an organic revolution of the state alone, could the hand which oppressed it be thrown aside. In the concerns of government as well as in the concerns of trade, the systematic interference of the Bourbons in the commerce of France was productive not only of distress among the people in detail, but of revolution among the people in a body.

ART. II.—COMMERCE OF CUBA.

OF all the countries connected with the continent of America, no matter to what particular nation they may owe their settlement, or under what form of government its inhabitants may live, the island of Cuba stands foremost in point of a steady and uninterrupted increase of prosperity. With an absolute government, with scarcely any means of internal communication, but roads for the most part impassable, and with a people possessed of that natural languor of mind, more or less common to the inhabitants of all tropical climates, we find a flourishing commerce, almost exempt from those periodical revulsions which so frequently prostrate the affairs of the United States and Great Britain, which are free from those disadvantages here pointed out. The following is a table of the aggregate imports and exports of the island for a series of years, showing the steadiness of its advancement in commercial prosperity.

Imports and exports of the island of Cuba.

1833	$32,507,235	1837	$43,286,764
1834	33,051,257	1838	45,200,980
1835	34,781,320	1839	46,797,665
1836	37,950,215	1840	50,641,972
		1841	51,856,123

These figures give evidence of a steady increase in the same years in which the business of the United States and Great Britain fluctuated to a fearful extent. We have here the proofs that the business of Cuba has immensely increased, although far behind the countries with which it mostly deals, in political freedom, advancement of the arts, and the activity of its inhabitants. There is another feature which has also been considered a proof of its want of advancement in modern science, viz: an exclusive metallic currency. How far this fact may or may not have contributed to the advancement of its wealth, we are not now to discuss; but simply to look into the real state of affairs. The currency of Cuba, although metallic, is far from being a perfect one. It consists, first, of the gold ounce, at an arbitrary value of $17, and its fractional parts, halves, quarters, and eighths. The silver in circulation consisted heretofore of the *pezeta* of Seville, or the pistareen, at the arbitrary value of four to the dollar—the real value being five to the dollar. Besides this are the eighth and sixteenth of the dollar, composing the smaller description of circulation. The pistareens have been the most abundant; their arbitrary value of four to the dollar caused them to seek the island from the mother country in great quantities, and led to the manufacture of counterfeits. In 1827 an attempt was made to prohibit their importation, but did not succeed. In October, 1841, however, a bando was emitted by the government, calling in the outstanding pistareens, at four to the dollar, in order to restamp them, with a view to their circulation thereafter at their real value of five to the dollar. The loss attending this operation was borne by the government.

The result of the operation was as follows.

Pistareens paid in at 4 to the dollar, and re-issued at 5 to the dollar.

	At Havana.	*Port Principe.*	*Santiago.*	*Total.*
Received,	$3,413,531	$963,840	$775,717	$5,153,088
Paid out,	2,761,512	794,321	632,507	4,188,340
Difference,	$652,019	$169,519	$143,210	$964,748

On the payment of the pistareens into the treasury, the holder received coupons, bearing 6 per cent interest, for the amount, which was afterwards reimbursed; the government making good the deficiency, $964,748.

The real value of the coins circulating in Cuba is as follows, according to the best assays.

	Date.	*Reign.*	*Weight. Grs.*	*Fineness. Thous'ths.*	*Real Value. d. c. m.*	*Nom'l Value.*
Doubloon,	1751	Ferdinand, American,	416	908	16.26.5	$17
Do.	1772–84	Charles III. "	416	893	16.00.0	"
Half do.	1780–82	" Spanish,	206	896	7.95.0	
Pistole,	1774–82	" American,	103	895	3.97.0	
Doubloon,	1786–88	" Spanish,	416	870	15.58.7	$17
do.	1789–1808	" IV. American,	208	870	7.79.0	"
do.	1811–21	Ferdinand VII. "	416.5	868	15.57.0	"
Half do.	1810–24	" Spanish,	208	865	7.74.8	
Pistole,	1813–22	" "	104	872	3.90.6	
Pistareen,	1707–12	Charles, (Pretender)	70	900	.17.0	20c
do.	1715–37	Philip V.	81	833	.18.2	"
do.	1724	Louis,	75	833	.16.8	"
do.	1759–71	Charles III.	85	826	.18.9	"
do.	1772–1808	"	85	813	.18.6	"
do.	1808–33	Ferdinand VII.	87	813	19.1	"
do.	1835–37	Isabella II.	90.5	810	.19.7	"
Dol. ¼ real,	1772–1821	(various,)	46	898	.11.1	
do. $\frac{1}{16}$	1772–1821	"	21	898	.5.1	

The following table will show the movement during the nine years from 1833 to 1841, inclusive.

Imports and exports of the precious metals in Cuba, from 1833 *to* 1841, *inclusive.*

	Imports.	*Exports.*	*Excess of imports.*
Gold . .	$8,751,752	$2,923,432	$5,828,320
Silver . .	6,741,172	6,480,994	260,178
Total,	$15,492,924	$9,404,426	$6,088,498

This return, keeping in view the quantity that was in the island anterior to this period, and the silver which has arrived clandestinely, proves that there is an excess of precious metals in the island; and also that a scarcity of the precious metals, under the present judicious system of finance and collection of the customs, is impossible. Both gold and silver are imported and exported with perfect freedom. There is abundance for the external trade of the island, and also for a circulating medium. This system also affords a choice of metals, which is evidenced in the fact, that

when one description disappears, it is immediately supplied by the other. The following is a return for the last three years.

	1839.	1840.	1841.
	Imports.		
Coined gold . .	$1,497,408	$908,108	$595,780
do. silver . .	709,770	454,118	185,859
	$2,207,178	$1,362,226	$781,639
	Exports.		
Coined gold . .	$850,858	$526,322	$326,842
do. silver . .	874,945	526,778	765,829
	$1,725,803	$1,053,100	$1,092,671
Excess of imports,	481,375	209,126	—
do. exports,	—	—	311,032

This being the condition of the circulating medium, there are three principal descriptions of credits afloat in the island, appertaining to the three branches of its business in agriculture, imports, and exports. The planters may be divided into two classes, viz: those who manage their own estates, sell their crops for cash, and buy on credit or for cash, as they may require. The other consists of those whose estates have been established, partly for cash, say 12 to 25 per cent, with mortgage, payable annually, in sums of ten to twenty thousand dollars. This purchase and establishment of estates on credit, constitutes the first class of credits. There is seldom any difficulty experienced in making such arrangements. It is usually done through some person seeking to become the factor for the sale of the produce, for which he charges a commission of 5 per cent, besides an annual interest of 12 per cent, and other expenses, as storage, brokerage, &c. Supplies are also furnished to the estates, payable out of the proceeds of the crop to come to market. The capital thus loaned to the development of the resources of the island, is well employed, and there seems to be a sufficiency to give employment to the industry of the people. The great means for the employment of the commercial capital of the island, are the promissory notes of the shopkeepers to the importers, and the bills of exchange drawn against produce by the exporter. The goods imported into the island, are sold partly on account of the growers, manufacturers, merchants, and ship-owners producing it, and partly on account of the residents of Cuba. These latter enjoy, perhaps, one fourth of the trade. The goods are sold partly for cash, as liquids, eatables, &c., with the exception of flour and pickled beef, and partly on credits, varying from one to eight months. The cash sales are to the credits as about one to five. The mean credits allowed may be stated at five months. The paper received in payment of merchandise sold on time, consists of the simple note of the buyer, without any other signature. This paper enjoys great credit. It is punctually paid at maturity, or, according to usage, on the Saturday following that day on which the note falls due. This paper is of the best possible description, and is rarely if ever dishonored. The ordinary rate of discount is $\frac{3}{4}$ to 1 per cent per month. In usual years the rate is high from January till June, say $\frac{7}{8}$ to 1 per cent per month, and low from July to December, say $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{7}{8}$ per cent per month. This paper has never been in discredit since 1829, and then the feeling

was but momentary, and arose from the efforts of a combination among the shopkeepers, forming a kind of safety-fund, to lengthen the term of credit. In the first months of the year the rate of discount reaches its highest point, because it is at that period that the shipments of produce are the most active. At that time commercial houses convert all their resources into cash; some for the purchase of produce, others for making remittances abroad on favorable terms, by taking advantage of the low rates of exchange caused by the abundant supply of bills. The produce of the island, exported, is mostly bought for cash; scarcely 5 per cent of the whole is bought on credit, and that at 60 to 90 days at most. Those who wish to purchase on credit, are looked upon with suspicion. The means for the purchase are, the money in the strong-box of the merchant, that realized by the discount of the shopkeepers' bills taken in payment for imports, and the sale of bills of exchange, which can always be done with sufficient facility. In the first months of the year, therefore, a general movement takes place, and the money of the capitalist is in active demand for the discount of bills and notes. The only difficulty that arises in usual years, in procuring these discounts, is owing to the over-abundance of bills upon the market at once. In years of revulsion in the United States and Great Britain, capitalists became cautious of the bills. When their bills are returned, they influence only the standing of those immediately connected with them, but never retard the regular business of the island. For all these purposes there is never any real deficiency of money. If the state of affairs abroad temporarily checks the disposition to invest in bills, the reduced rate in consequence never fails to draw out the money.

The imports, we have said, are generally on foreign account. These are sometimes on account of the ship-owner, as lumber from the United States, and the products of Spain; again, on the joint account of the ship-owner, shippers or consignees, or both, as is usually the case with jerked beef from the river Platte, rice from Charleston; sometimes on account of the shipper and consignees, severally and jointly, as United States flour, lard, &c. Sometimes retailers import from Europe the precise articles they require, of hardware, clothing, &c. Speculators, also, watching the New York market, import thence various articles of manufactures. Again, foreign manufacturers send for sale the linens of Germany, France, and Ireland; cottons of Great Britain and Switzerland; silks of France and Switzerland. Sometimes the Havana houses import French and English goods manufactured expressly for the market. The general results of this import business are seen in the following table of articles imported, for a period of three years, compiled from tables got up with great care, by the intendant of the island.

IMPORTS OF ARTICLES INTO THE ISLAND OF CUBA IN 1839, 1840, 1841.

Liquors.

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Sweet Oil, . . .	$372,403	$228,960	$306,702
Rum (Aquardiente) .	170,602	161,322	259,598
Malt liquors, . .	171,727	180,760	222,617
Gin, ...	75,170	106,599	160,092
Cider, ...	30,791	25,762	37,498
Vinegar, . . .	11,128	8,812	12,690
Wine (White) . .	87,132	101,722	155,713

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Wine (Red)	1,382,240	1,103,071	1,229,764
Other liquors,	89,365	82,050	45,036
Total liquors,	$2,390,569	$1,990,068	$2,429,875
Provisions.			
Pork,	40,571	55,296	62,275
Beef,	46,417	46,344	50,170
" smoked,	2,560	4,239	9,187
" jerked,	1,655,433	1,582,278	1,868,823
Sausages,	30,620	30,354	30,833
Bacon,	28,073	36,569	28,785
Ham,	81,728	81,174	130,300
Total provisions,	1,885,402	1,836,254	2,180,373
Spices.			
Saffron,	34,896	48,186	18,525
Cinnamon,	47,376	13,984	12,180
Cloves,	4,241	6,921	3,496
Pimento,	5,389	1,707	5,386
Pepper,	8,422	23,857	11,259
Other spices,	18,900	19,677	9,428
Total spices,	119,204	114,332	60,283
Fruits.			
Olives,	31,033	33,709	33,442
Almonds,	53,284	51,720	43,346
Filberts,	9,312	4,908	11,194
Prunes,	9,867	6,156	3,512
Figs,	14,232	16,781	9,584
Raisins,	51,382	51,466	66,338
Other fruits,	57,124	64,566	60,153
Total fruits,	226,234	229,306	227,569
Breadstuffs.			
Rice,	838,914	1,037,773	1,030,784
Cocoa,	40,463	174,428	30,683
Beans,	38,877	20,622	37,805
" (Spanish)	79,332	62,522	50,542
Wheat Flour,	2,416,611	2,425,162	2,843,198
Indian Meal,	810	2,452	6,927
Indian Corn,	1,457	4,662	3,592
Other breadstuffs,	28,386	23,947	8,972
Total breadstuffs,	$3,444,850	3,751,568	4,012,499
Linens.			
Drills,	284,933	209,755	158,638
Cambrics,	22,830	10,169	19,252
Stockings,	3,118	6,166	3,833

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Lace,	23,653	16,128	1,370
Russias,	328,317	276,302	200,354
Holland,	24,102	21,871	26,514
Irish,	30,317	70,533	29,265
Caleta,	371,741	193,798	233,614
Creas,	171,494	185,002	129,745
Listados,	460,629	313,752	55,224
Platillas,	453,842	512,941	613,807
Lawns,	37,975	43,407	33,830
Estopillas,	113,557	127,354	69,881
Other linens,	307,778	458,077	368,553
Total linens,	2,634,286	2,445,255	1,943,886
	Peltry.		
Boots,	11,608	7,490	3,199
Tanned skins,	173,501	157,440	—
Saddles,	49,013	57,042	38,060
Leather,	57,141	50,306	57,874
Shoes,	289,100	127,363	132,545
Other peltry,	70,893	125,293	153,009
Total,	571,258	524,934	384,687
	Silks.		
Ribbons,	85,737	102,549	55,747
Shawls,	49,784	28,981	9,734
Silk Net,	26,281	20,722	11,545
Mantillas,	4,948	7,983	8,959
Stockings,	33,730	19,457	35,146
Handkerchiefs,	105,883	80,041	45,254
Umbrellas,	20,373	18,316	14,324
Net goods,	8,309	1,419	
Satin,	35,895	37,580	45,862
Serge,	10,016	3,723	4,851
Sewing Silk,	35,771	29,731	
Tafeta,	12,182	9,721	4,350
Dresses,	490	951	68,530
Other silks,	54,663	71,377	
Total silks,	484,062	432,551	304,302
	Lumber.		
Hoops,	87,446	97,626	105,841
Hogsheads,	278,864	223,120	525,837
Fustic,	141,134	66,078	1,597
Boards,	655,982	733,467	720,692
Shingles,	9,174	5,961	7,542
Other lumber,	120,177	204,801	17,649
Total lumber,	1,292,777	1,331,015	1,379,158

Oils.

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Whale,	$102,711	$136,194	$118,860
Lard,	620,245	507,124	748,768
Butter,	33,861	47,149	77,811
Cheese,	67,328	94,410	132,147
Tallow,	26,609	95,116	62,188
Tallow Candles,	152,937	160,907	223,048
Sperm Candles,	42,037	64,841	38,100
Other oils,	—	—	42,458
Total oils,	1,045,728	1,105,741	1,443,180

Fish.

Herring,	17,333	20,149	9,754
Atun,	2,659	1,228	1,417
Cod,	318,016	365,408	332,934
Mackerel,	16,981	7,177	565
Salt fish,	16,783	15,066	39,012
Sardines,	26,045	29,879	44,704
Salmon,	894	832	2,710
Total fish,	398,711	439,735	431,096

Miscellaneous.

Onions,	28,633	38,261	39,838
Vermicelli,	114,219	117,129	78,511
Crackers,	28,199	25,768	18,840
Potatoes,	67,366	77,759	95,662
Teas,	4,434	4,078	2,210
Vegetables and Pickles,	49,425	33,732	55,728
Total,	292,276	296,727	290,789

Cotton Manufactures.

Cotton Wool,	392,926	2,054,086	
Coquillo,	4,386	661	5,191
Drills,	139,866	167,065	181,678
Listadoes,	382,237	122,556	124,246
Nankeen,	10,418	11,330	1,687
Blankets,	62,139	24,923	33,380
Stockings,	197,314	133,318	142,252
Muslins,	360,478	224,796	364,941
Cambrics,	169,972	116,778	2,429
Dresses,	22,246	13,931	18,980
Handkerchiefs,	334,430	243,137	152,652
Calicoes,	485,207	270,412	469,961
Other articles,	525,088	749,729	377,648
Total Cotton Manufactures,	3,086,707	4,142,722	1,875,065

Woollens.

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Bombazine,	$3,531	$2,843	$1,028
Baize,	52,147	87,667	30,997
Cassimere,	3,687	2,609	2,207
Cloth,	71,898	88,061	52,580
Frozadus,	66,197	70,438	43,848
Other woollens,	83,605	106,224	64,586
Total woollens,	281,065	357,842	195,246

Miscellaneous.

Almond Oil,	26,930	9,717	—
Linseed "	24,647	20,899	—
Tar,	9,403	9,717	9,432
Horses and Mules,	17,000	20,899	13,935
Live-stock,	184	422	—
Indigo,	216,190	280,855	—
Coal,	14,515	21,768	43,049
Glass,	213,393	145,746	111,558
Ironware,	911,127	695,682	737,135
Caps,	5,410	6,451	2,139
Chochineal,	107,238	62,980	—
Ice,	56,160	60,772	146,960
Twine,	12,726	35,099	17,457
Soap,	480,398	489,456	258,094
Rigging,	32,554	92,622	20,474
Bricks,	43,974	66,729	58,674
Books,	79,013	67,919	73,681
Marbleware,	20,299	12,213	17,925
Earthenware,	137,276	146,139	158,515
Machinery,	21,707	28,180	—
Medicine,	169,470	101,837	122,998
Hardware,	546,621	711,885	174,186
Furniture,	60,794	68,102	76,387
White Paper,	198,176	116,983	91,391
Paperhangings,	6,982	3,502	89,091
Perfumery,	65,488	67,651	95,158
Paint,	60,777	46,406	58,230
Powder,	55,349	27,811	18,841
Jewelry,	43,415	81,132	63,253
Clothing,	53,868	—	38,498
Bagging,	63,570	110,519	109,781
Salt,	100,813	115,612	238,145
Leeches,	12,880	15,730	—
Ropes,	67,919	133,568	67,992
Hats,	74,770	90,021	45,207
Tobacco leaf,	18,621	18,630	—
" stems,	12,853	38,211	21,459
Snuff,	1,715	1,481	1,776
Chairs,	59,579	49,215	—

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Sarsaparilla, . .	12,321	25,063	4,995
Yeso, . . .	10,157	3,641	3,517
Other articles, . .	254	89,850	190,112
Total miscellaneous,	4,182,048	4,160,815	3,569,003
Metals.			
Quicksilver, . .	23,838	—	—
Nails, . . .	143,586	126,375	—
Copper, . . .	127,269	57,590	177,958
Iron, . . .	261,855	118,782	46,130
Coined Gold, . .	1,497,408	908,108	119,997
" Silver, . .	709,770	454,118	595,780
Lead, . . .	42,971	30,939	185,859
Other metals, . .	—	5,940	48,271
Total metals, . .	2,803,119	1,691,756	1,173,995
Total importations,	$25,315,803	$27,700,189	$21,781,925
In warehouse, . .	—	—	$3,299,483

We may now pass to the duties. These consist of import duties, warehouse duties, importation out of warehouse, export duties, and seven or eight other charges. The import duties amount to about three fifths of the whole. The tariff has undergone repeated changes. In 1809 the formation of a tariff was given in charge to a commission, by the cortes, which advised its immediate execution. In 1819 a tariff was framed, fixing the duties according to the classification of the articles, at from 26¼ to 43¼ per cent; but it was not formally legalized until the year 1824, when it was published. It was approved by royal decree of March, 1825, leaving room for such modifications as circumstances might require, of which, in fact, many were made in the tariff of 1826. Since that time it has undergone successive reformations, such as experience and the conciliation of the different interests of state, of agriculture and commerce, might suggest. These changes are made by authority of the "Board of Tariff;" and, having obtained the sanction of the superior director, are immediately transmitted to Spain to receive the royal approbation.

An organic law of tariffs was published by the Spanish government in 1820, and a desire was manifested by the cortes to extend the prohibitive system to the West India colonies. This was strenuously resisted by the authorities of Havana, who, by their exertions, obtained, first, the decree of 3d July, 1821, suspending the action of that law so far as it affected these islands; and, afterwards, a decree of 4th February, 1822, justifying the course pursued in the formation of tariffs for the islands, and giving royal permission to modify or vary, according to local or circumstantial exigencies, observing to render account of such modifications, with the reasons therefor, for the approbation of the cortes.

In these periodical reformations of the tariff, preserving, as far as possible, the fundamental basis, those variations are admitted which the vicissitudes of commerce, and the prices of the domestic productions by which it is sustained, render indispensable. By royal decrees of May, 1836, and December, 1835, this privilege was suspended, and the *previous* assent of the sovereign was to be obtained, before such modifications could be per-

mitted to go into operation. These decrees were, however, repealed in August, 1837, and another decree of December, in the same year, advises the intendant to proceed with a revision for 1839.

The basis of the present tariff is as follows: National merchandise introduced into the island under the Spanish flag, direct from the qualified ports of the peninsula, pays 6¼ per cent on values specified in the tariff. The same productions, under a foreign flag, pay 18¼ per cent, or 14¼ per cent, according to the classification of the tariff—being the same which foreign goods pay when imported under the national tariff; but if the latter come from any port in the peninsula, they come under the third class of duties, and pay 13¾ or 10¾ per cent. To all these duties are added the "balance" of 1 per cent. In 1838 an additional duty of 50 cents per bbl. was put upon flour, and one seventh added to the duties of importation. On exports, a duty of 50 cents is laid on each box of sugar, 1½ cents on each arroba of coffee, 25 cents on each hogshead of molasses, 3 cents on each arroba of leaf tobacco, 12½ cents on each thousand of segars. After December last, an additional duty of ½ per cent was laid upon all imports and exports.

The first class of duties on importation, comprehends those on foreign productions under a foreign flag, which are 27¼ and 21¼ per cent on the valuation specified; and 4¼ on fine jewelry. Articles not specified in the tariff pay 27¼ per cent, on a valuation made at the customhouse, except machines and agricultural utensils, which pay 24¼ per cent; those which appertain to sugar-works, and certain other manufactories, are free.

Each quintal of foreign cordage from a foreign port, under a foreign flag, pays $7 12½; under the national flag from a foreign port, or Spanish cordage under a foreign flag, pays $5; foreign cordage in Spanish vessels from Spanish ports, $4 50. By the addition of the duty of 2 per cent, with the title of "armamento," and the 1 per cent, with the title of "re-emplazo," the duty is increased to 24¼ and 30¼ on foreign effects at their importation, excepting "hogs," upon which there is a specific duty. All kinds of wines, spirits, or liquors, pay as additional duty 50 cents for each pipe, 25 cents each half-pipe, 12½ cents each demijohn, 12½ cents each dozen of bottles, flasks, or jugs.

To all these duties are added the "balanza" of 1 per cent on the whole amount.

The above is a digest of the tariff for 1835, 1836, and 1837. In October, 1838, the tariff was increased as follows, under the title of "extraordinary war subsidy:"

An increase of 50 cents on the duty on each barrel of flour, whether national or foreign.

An addition of one seventh to the duties of importation, with exception of flour, goods in deposite, gold and silver coin, indigo, cochineal, cordage, and the tonnage duties.

On exports, 50 cents on each box of sugar; 1½ cent on each arroba of coffee; 25 cents on each hogshead of molasses; 3 cents on each arroba of tobacco in leaf; 12½ cents on every thousand segars.

From the Havana official gazettes it appears that an additional duty of one half per cent was levied on imports and exports, on the first day of December last.

Tonnage duties and port charges.—Tonnage duty on Spanish vessels, 62½ cents per ton; tonnage duty on foreign vessels, $1 50 per ton.

In the port of La Havana, an additional duty is exacted of 21¼ cents per ton on all vessels, national or foreign, for the support of the dredging machine. (ponton.) The wharf dues in Havana are, on Spanish vessels, 75 cents per day; other nations $1 50 per day for each 100 tons of their register measurement.

Light-house dues, officers' fees, &c., are not estimated, there being no official information in the department with regard to them, except for the port of Baracoa.

The port charges are different in the various ports; those for the port of Baracoa are given:

Tonnage duty	$1 50 per ton.
Anchorage	12 00
Free pass at the fort	3 00
Health officer's fee for boarding vessels	8 00
Customhouse interpreter's fee	5 00
Customhouse officer's fee to visit on board, to seal and unseal, so long as the vessel is discharging	5 00
Opening vessel's register	8 00
Register of despatch	8 00

These are the leading features of the tariff.

The collection of the duties is in a very simple manner. The island of Cuba contains nearly 47,000 square miles, and is divided into three intendancies, of which Havana is the principal. The intendancy is organized into seven branches, viz: the intendant, the superior council of the *hacienda*, the tribunal of accounts, the accountant-general, the treasurer-general, the administration of the customs, and the administration of the internal revenue. The administration of the customs is comprised of the administrator or collector, the accountant, and the treasurer. When a vessel arrives at the Havana, she is first boarded by the health officer; after whom comes the revenue officer, and the smuggling preventive service. A copy of the customhouse regulations, in Spanish, French, and English, is handed to the captain, and a manifest required of him of all the particulars of his vessel and cargo. Every article on board the vessel omitted in the manifest, is subject to confiscation. Within forty-eight hours after the entry of the vessel, every consignee must deliver a detailed statement of the articles coming to him, with their quantities, weights, and measures, all reduced to the legal standard. All the papers and documents relating to a vessel, are stitched together in a book, with the signatures and seals of all the government officers through whose hands the several documents pass. A copy of this book is made for the use of the inspectors and appraisers; the latter function being restrained within very narrow limits, by a printed tariff of all articles of import, with a valuation to each, which valuation in a great degree defines the duties of their *ad valorem* character. As fast as the inspection and appraisement takes place, the consignee is permitted to remove the goods, by procuring the signature of some responsible person to the words inscribed in the book, "I make myself answerable for the duties." The inspection and appraisement being concluded, the book is returned to the accountant's office, where the liquidation of the duties is forthwith made. The payment is then proceeded with. These payments are mostly cash; that is to say, on some articles, whatever may be the amount, cash is required; upon other articles the duties are cash under $1,000. If the amount is greater,

a credit of one fourth is given for 60 days, and one fourth payable at the end of each succeeding month—making five months credit in all. The security for this credit consists simply in the promissory note of the consignee, without endorsement, under the responsibility of the administrator and the accountant, with the power in case of a failure to convert every other note of the same individual into a cash debt; the individual to be forever after incapacitated to enter goods except for cash. This system has been in force many years, and under it no loss whatever has been sustained by the government. Formerly the same credits required the endorsement of a holder of real estate, but this was abandoned on account of its insecurity.

The exports of the island produce are generally for account of speculators, sometimes for account of European refiners, and rarely for account of the planters. The chief speculators are the United States and European merchants. Ship-owners, and merchants in Cuba, often take interests in cargoes, and some are shipped on account of speculators at Havana. The produce being always purchased for cash, it is sometimes done with the nett proceeds of imports. Sometimes specie is imported for the purpose; but a large proportion is paid for with the proceeds of bills of exchange. Drawers of bills, of good character, can always sell any amount they may wish. When from revulsion abroad bills are slow of sale, returns for imports are made in produce for account of their owners, instead of being made in bills drawn against the same produce for account of some speculator. The business of the island is, therefore, not retarded by that circumstance. This being the system of business in relation to exports, we may here annex the following table of exports for the years corresponding to those embraced in the table of imports alone.

EXPORTS OF THE ISLAND OF CUBA.

Products of the Island.

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Mahogany,	$103,272	$64,398	$66,261
Spirits from the Cane,	174,055	211,051	226,050
Cocoa,	1,024	—	2,538
Cotton,	310,418	133,885	132,874
Coffee,	1,950,469	2,143,574	1,852,509
Sugar,	8,290,387	11,264,367	11,613,798
Cedar,	31,065	25,901	21,671
Wax,	147,686	115,311	307,131
Copper ore,	2,418,450	3,706,951	4,505,490
Hides,	15,054	6,991	22,633
Sweetmeats,	14,168	10,420	14,394
Fruits,	91,837	94,242	96,708
Honey,	51,744	55,918	68,862
Molasses,	900,163	1,346,820	821,188
Horses and Mules,	43,722	19,388	—
Pustic,	92,124	82,564	82,918
Cattle,	984	124	—
Cigars,	637,558	535,122	719,364
Tobacco,	1,273,069	1,395,689	1,677,743
Other articles,	79,371	87,979	51,215
Total products,	$16,526,620	$21,380,695	$22,281,297

Metals, &c.

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Quicksilver,	9,900	7,461	—
Indigo,	210,344	186,061	—
Cochineal,	254,300	33,955	—
Coined Gold,	850,858	526,322	326,842
" Silver,	874,945	526,778	765,829
Other metals,	—	—	39,996
Total,	2,200,347	1,280,577	1,132,667

Foreign Goods.

Cotton Wool,	513,772	1,842,192	—
" manufacture,	843,259	539,051	24,446
Liquors,	135,252	95,105	153,347
Glass,	16,709	5,975	6,372
Fruits and grains,	108,985	171,478	37,525
Hardware,	87,523	154,901	7,528
Woollens,	30,199	10,135	5,688
Linens,	333,616	164,504	67,418
Fustic,	96,537	76,805	—
Peltry,	25,714	17,775	3,507
Silk,	104,585	74,319	45,203
Tobacco,	26,898	29,492	—
Sarsaparilla,	12,888	19,270	—
Other articles,	318,828	159,587	159,452
Total foreign goods,	2,654,765	3,360,589	510,486
Grand total exportations,	$21,481,802	$25,941,783	$23,925,919

These tables give a complete view of the nature and quantities of the imports and exports. We have before remarked, that there is never an interruption to the trade of the island, of a serious nature. Commercial discredit, when it occurs, attaches to individuals, and not classes. It arises mostly from overtrading: for instance, among shopkeepers. If manufactures are sent to the island in too great quantities, the sales are made at a loss. These low prices tempt the shopkeeper to purchase to an extent that may embarrass his payments. Again, too great speculation in produce will carry the prices so high, that the shipper loses, and his bills return upon him. In this latter case, however, the planter has obtained the benefit of the rise, having received cash, in coin, for the produce. Herein is a difference between a similar operation in the southern states. Speculation raises the prices of cotton, but the planter gets bank paper, which becomes depreciated in proportion to the quantity afloat, and the loss is sustained by the speculator where bills are returned. By the operation of suspended bank paper, the whole loss is averaged upon the community; with a specie currency, the loss is confined to the individual.

We may now pass to the consideration of the number of vessels, and the tonnage employed in the commerce of Cuba, the imports and exports of each port of the island, with the amount of duty collected at each, which will be found in the following table:—

Number of vessels entered and cleared from each port of Cuba, with the tonnage, amount of imports and duties collected, for three years.

TONNAGE ENTERED, WITH IMPORTS AND IMPORT DUTIES.

Tonnage entered.

Ports.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Havana	237,801	255,430	252,251
Cuba	53,139	67,274	67,252
Nuevitas	5,117	6,091	4,963
Matanzas	67,244	71,071	77,573
Trinidad	28,965	31,138	32,123
Baracoa	1,710	1,693	2,426
Gibara	4,322	3,962	3,689
Cienfuegos	7,349	12,604	15,253
Manzanillo	8,359	7,945	8,804
Santi-Espiritu	1,005	490	578
Santa-Cruz	1,785	2,142	2,634
San Juan	221	389	293
	417,017	460,229	467,839

Imports.

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Havana	18,436,888	17,713,310	18,584,877
Cuba	3,165,422	2,972,497	2,671,421
Nuevitas	152,647	172,263	186,828
Matanzas	1,868,819	1,863,624	1,995,311
Trinidad	1,012,267	990,012	942,661
Baracoa	36,407	57,376	81,832
Gibara	197,840	156,856	127,588
Cienfuegos	187,935	310,741	288,732
Manzanillo	155,142	152,321	153,072
Santi-Espiritu	21,677	17,860	25,869
Santa-Cruz	69,497	83,025	54,732
San Juan	11,255	10,303	8,484
	25,217,796	24,500,188	25,122,407

Import duties.

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Havana	4,388,790	4,150,343	4,071,509
Cuba	671,731	680,212	700,964
Nuevitas	50,297	52,579	45,425
Matanzas	539,758	590,674	595,558
Trinidad	217,790	244,759	262,310
Baracoa	11,770	11,802	22,663
Gibara	59,368	47,082	37,797
Cienfuegos	64,984	65,079	87,618
Manzanillo	62,076	57,403	67,412
Santi-Espiritu	10,316	7,012	10,291
Santa-Cruz	30,183	38,404	36,675
San Juan	6,440	6,449	5,591
	6,113,503	5,951,798	5,943,813

TONNAGE CLEARED, WITH EXPORTS AND EXPORT DUTIES.

Tonnage cleared.

Ports.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Havana	235,703	223,167	253,865
Cuba	54,006	68,121	64,416
Nuevitas	4,923	5,370	3,628
Matanzas	80,526	98,100	97,349
Trinidad	28,238	30,547	30,880
Baracoa	1,603	1,111	2,221
Gibara	4,404	3,894	2,880
Cienfuegos	7,778	12,563	14,973
Manzanillo	10,515	9,412	8,806
Santi-Espiritu	954	1,385	200
Santa-Cruz	2,913	1 176	617
San Juan	337	267	192
	431,900	455,113	480,027

Exports.

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Havana	12,206,737	14,172,573	14,203,292
Cuba	4,149,866	5,211,057	5,993,631
Nuevitas	82,727	181,750	71,595
Matanzas	3,335,284	4,333,744	4,374,780
Trinidad	913,417	1,046,181	1,157,571
Baracoa	21,456	43,075	85,918
Gibara	240,255	217,562	161,582
Cienfuegos	280,699	506,256	506,379
Manzanillo	192,252	151,866	137,464
Santi-Espiritu	10,681	19,910	14,264
Santa-Cruz	47,822	49,584	63,260
San Juan	662	8,220	4,878
	21,481,848	25,941,778	26,774,614

Export duties.

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Havana	694,337	770,359	702,058
Cuba	140,271	141,042	117,118
Nuevitas	5,602	7,780	6,510
Matanzas	274,537	370,336	346,922
Trinidad	73,369	78,761	89,249
Baracoa	867	1,759	4,567
Gibara	17,429	12,679	10,390
Cienfuegos	20,201	31,207	28,609
Manzanillo	14,513	11,251	10,626
Santi-Espiritu	1,722	2,090	911
Santa-Cruz	6,466	7,880	5,446
San Juan	250	551	236
	1,249,564	1,435,695	1,322,642

Having thus far ran through the aggregate trade of Cuba, we may now pass to the consideration of the direct trade going on between the United States and that flourishing island. For this, we have compiled from the official documents a table showing each article of import and export for seven years, distinguishing the kind of duties paid on each article of import; also, the foreign goods exported to Cuba, as well as those of domestic growth; also, the amounts imported and exported in American and foreign bottoms. The first table is comprised of the imports. It appears, on inspection, that nearly three fourths of the amount imported free of duty was coffee, and about five sixths of these articles subject to specific duties, were sugar and molasses. In fact, these three articles, coffee, sugar, and molasses, form nearly all the imports. The goods subject to ad valorem duties, it would appear, consist mostly of foreign manufactured goods returned for want of sale. The quantity and value of coffee and sugar imported, it appears, fluctuates with the paper inflation of this country. For instance, in the year 1836, it will be observed, the quantity of sugar imported exceeded by 12,000,000 lbs. that imported in the previous year, and by 20,000,000 lbs. that of the succeeding year. It again rose 30,000,000 lbs. or 75 per cent in 1839, and again fell off 22,000,000 lbs. in the next year. The years of large import were years of extended bank circulation, and show conclusively how powerless is a tariff to protect the sugar planter of Louisiana, when the currency is subject to such sudden fluctuations. In the case of sugar, the import was less in 1840, when the tariff had been reduced, than in 1835, before the paper inflation took place. The same remark applies to the other dutiable articles, molasses, clayed sugar, and cigars, and as far as the currency goes, to the free articles of coffee, dye-woods, &c. The tables are as follows:—

TRADE BETWEEN CUBA AND THE UNITED STATES, FOR A SERIES OF YEARS.

Imports into the United States from Cuba.

Free articles.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Hides, &c.	16608	5539	1423	19223	383	8509	3922
Wood,dye,&c.	61059	80329	127949	151729	62131	104657	68070
Animals,	312	10300	9299	1824	26	212	1443
Copper,	5842	10077	20052	16839	4130	1439	2662
Gold,	12509	17475	7559	290347	170576	163670	450529
Silver,	594156	247781	114959	1357763	240218	157644	97634
Coffee, lbs.	19679457	29373665	17850736	29503553	33051651	26181489	25331888
" value,	2356806	2290571	2180085	2957665	2929390	2623247	2408867
Cocoa,	2949	1882	2792	11608	4676	—	29
Almonds,	3469	1079	9767	1470	226	431	40
Camphor,	3620	—	—	—	—	—	—
Oth'r free art's,	523925	644818	592978	479741	409676	560471	524771
Total free,	3582055	4311046	3066794	5288205	3822302	3620376	3557967
Ad valorem.							
Cottons,	22603	55383	45605	38471	112705	58871	3979
Silks,	14780	11840	2518	2809	—	6308	13353
Lace,	2678	2377	924	399	119	70	140
Flax goods,	3057	—	785	113	5	1290	92
Indigo,	81,623	13887	29186	124490	—	—	2312
Other articles,	160856	203575	369855	208527	232359	330030	200932
Total ad val.	$285597	287062	448873	374809	345188	396569	220808

IMPORTS.—*Continued.*

Specific.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Wines,	14523	30989	6129	142486	18801	16303	17076
Molasses,	1952331	2196181	2886339	2508293	2859581	2952120	2204243
B. sugar, lbs.	47422720	48367835	60839838	40965998	55624855	70286903	48126706
" value,	2101319	2618844	4411086	2129414	2698663	3639961	2176965
" clay'd, lbs.	7837071	14192361	9822753	15659455	14662273	12677591	12967463
" value,	505085	1052396	867524	1079617	1118754	967174	837430
Cigars,	644263	821860	1043735	1184605	797787	988409	817064
C'dage, twine, &c.	2389	1630	886	133	2470	1411	318
Paper,	6898	10235	4788	265	317	50	188
Other articles,	7335	26170	26908	13970	9045	13378	3927
Tot'l specific,	5234143	6758305	9247395	6927083	7505418	8577896	6057837
Grand total,	9096002	11346615	12734875	12447922	11694812	12599843	9835477
Am. vessels,	7012706	9197236	12263802	11843467	11120218	11860489	9233644
Foreign "	2083296	2149359	471073	604455	574594	739354	601833

Exports from the United States to Cuba.

Foreign goods.							
Hides,	1114	—	—	466	85	—	—
Woods, dye, &c.	10124	15939	6493	2691	4680	1680	4465
Gold,	128719	280839	146832	386774	231287	151651	116172
Silver,	14750	64336	369310	120373	2805	23440	31071
Cocoa,	28221	100052	130382	38927	83108	27748	39441
Spices,	5871	6427	12368	10008	8399	9368	13967
Teas,	18443	21581	—	—	14735	3157	4807
Woollens,	34828	27388	9415	63429	16323	6486	3383
Worsted,	26402	—	9715	—	10947	1489	610
Cotton,	353442	221108	173809	387379	162348	109752	60183
Silks,	295439	182344	258172	240457	263075	255414	248090
Lace,	26231	25691	5222	3195	12014	16971	2700
Flax goods,	142426	6241	10918	25336	36394	15212	16793
Hemp,	161539	204870	384599	395620	173563	192286	128330
Wines,	25047	16559	16139	27150	48208	25571	14642
Candles,	6388	—	17859	1692	18155	7107	14418
Provisions,	58854	41506	37871	9807	18851	22055	15043
Other articles,	341745	223274	233244	263495	357986	219911	259631
Total,	1679583	1439155	1822348	1986799	1468963	1089398	973746
Am. vessels,	833030	1111492	1788438	2047411	1423062	1079437	972555
Foreign,	826425	477880	15334	16409	31263	11768	6489
Domestic Goods.							
Fish,	216248	245970	309324	260357	289158	278398	183305
Oil,	60392	71230	127957	104356	113272	113043	101964
Sperm candles,	73326	53476	81171	81262	79313	37996	79933
Lumber,	585474	741779	744337	856528	955383	905332	830558
Naval stores,	16064	16314	18044	22637	21376	12579	16265
Skins,	12544	12290	4513	8061	4658	—	133
Provisions,	141383	108908	145243	105519	111532	77029	87527
Lard and hams,	654604	674908	737281	629396	597956	831393	693578
Flour,	530016	482838	640726	512995	598093	711988	369031
Bread,	11035	19702	22588	14598	16938	21475	13839
Potatoes,	22209	23043	25209	31956	28052	33090	29295
Apples,	6650	6107	9266	9127	7738	7498	5471
Rice,	336765	403374	521197	410113	551095	556143	439176
Cotton,	5081	54458	32546	172337	183933	263653	1276235
Tobacco,	39094	61747	79753	45034	52860	66940	48202
Furniture,	33049	42581	59059	90775	78907	107309	73817
	2743934	3018725	3578214	3355051	3690264	4023866	4248329

Bro't over,	2743934	3018725	3558914	3355051	3690264	4023866	4248399
Hats,	81674	53798	23858	30150	9231	9695	14125
Saddlery,	15947	15908	26251	18925	18250	17434	29244
Shoes & leather,	28769	21092	6447	11007	9559	12453	15083
Soap& tal. cand.	233129	193388	212834	177825	212296	145436	172589
Iron nails,	37863	45747	45115	100725	61174	72910	96089
" articles,	27604	34210	60330	117750	196771	283690	273972
Gunpowder,	76074	110991	54280	78041	41572	31961	11071
Drugs,	15542	13738	14285	20840	26684	21212	15809
Cotton goods,	75381	99020	57763	80653	157621	69950	85590
C'mbs & buttons,	24956	12238	8637	4308	7941	3564	3708
Umbrellas,	12998	7976	11521	4214	5274	5663	973
Paper,	22240	19240	13270	13268	33965	20038	29531
Glass,	19203	12227	10863	17047	14656	16291	12426
Specie,	—	—	125849	—	1188	3406	2327
Other articles,	277969	208189	377297	271975	315559	260755	291976
Total,	3692553	3866477	4606814	4302779	4736005	4998014	5312845
Am. vessels,	2213724	2872774	4369798	4076759	4424994	4617775	4616547
Foreign,	1479256	1044662	231919	227024	296439	407851	714924
Gr'd tot'l exp.	5352435	5506808	6405789	6367603	6175758	6116831	6310515
Excess imp'ts.	3743567	5839807	6329086	6080319	5519054	6483012	3524962

This table presents the fact, that the increase of exports from the United States to Cuba, did not keep pace with the imports; on the contrary, as the sale of Cuba produce increased, under the action of speculation in the United States, the balance in favor of Cuba increased; this balance was settled by bills running on London, drawn against open credits and loans there, on American account. This balance rose $2,500,000 from 1834 to 1836, and fell three millions from 1839 to 1840, giving undeniable evidence of an unhealthy trade. By another calculation, however, it would seem, that the high prices of 1839, were favorable to the United States. For instance, Cuba gave in 1839, $711,988 for 90,000 bbls. of flour, which is equal to about eight dollars per barrel, and she got five cents per pound for sugar, giving therefore 160 lbs. of sugar for one barrel of flour. In 1840, however, she got 70,000 bbls. of flour for $369,631, being not far from $5 25 per barrel; but she sold sugar at 4¼ cents, giving therefore but 123 lbs. of sugar for a barrel of flour, making a difference of 37 lbs. of sugar in a barrel of flour. It must be remembered, however, that these values for flour are United States export values, and prices being under the operation of a depreciated currency, an apparent loss was sustained in shipping.

Another remarkable feature in the tables is the fact, that the trade has fallen into the hands of American vessels almost altogether. The exports in American vessels in 1834, was 60 per cent of the whole, and in 1840 was 90 per cent. The imports in American vessels in 1834, were 80 per cent of the whole, and in 1840, 97 per cent of the whole. The following table will show the tonnage employed in this trade in each year.

NUMBER OF VESSELS AND TONNAGE ENTERED AND CLEARED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM AND TO CUBA, IN EACH YEAR.

Entered.

	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
American vessels,	859	977	1048	940	1199	1247	1171
do. tonnage,	123274	153280	155572	151193	184398	193014	174920
do. crews,	—	7864	7976	7405	9265	9481	8479
Foreign vessels,	238	166	75	68	94	79	91
do. tonnage,	31729	25624	10284	7686	11491	13028	14776
do. crews,	—	1824	720	579	870	845	908

Cleared.

	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
American vessels,	850	950	1078	1050	1240	1240	1227
do. tonnage,	129524	151313	166460	175796	193746	194578	192548
do. crews,	—	7531	8612	8680	9670	9721	9559
Foreign vessels,	226	173	57	81	77	73	93
do. tonnage,	29954	26783	8329	13194	10618	12805	15679
do. crews,	—	1829	511	737	723	811	955

The whole tonnage which entered Cuba in 1839, was 417,020 tons; of which 194,778 tons was American, from the United States. Of 431,903 tons that cleared from Cuba, in the same year, 193,014 tons was American, entering the United States. The American tonnage employed in this trade has increased in the seven years 40 per cent, while the foreign tonnage has fallen off 50 per cent. This may be ascribed to judicious regulations in existence concerning our foreign intercourse.

The present state of affairs bodes a continuance of that unexampled growth of trade, which has been evident between the United States for the past few years, to the mutual benefit of both countries.

Art. III.—PROPORTION OF PERSONS TO THE POPULATION ENGAGED IN SEVEN PRINCIPAL EMPLOYMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES,

AS EXHIBITED BY THE CENSUS OF 1840.

The following tables contain the number of persons in *seven* employments, in the several states and territories, and in sixteen principal cities, of over twenty thousand inhabitants each, according to the census of 1840. The enumeration can hardly be considered perfect; but it is believed to be sufficiently accurate for the general purposes of comparison.

The results are not without interest to the merchant, who wishes to know not only the number of persons "employed in commerce," but the localities of the various kinds of merchandise as they are indicated by the number of persons in these employments. And, moreover, the number in the learned professions, and of engineers, may be regarded as implying the prevalence of a higher intellectual education; for it is hardly to be supposed but that most of those in this column, have received a classical or college education, or its equivalent. It is not however to be inferred, that a merely intellectual, or professional education, necessarily implies greater virtue or better morals in a community. We regard a moral education as important an element in a complete education as intellectual attainments, and that virtue, good order, and the welfare of a community are not the necessary fruits of intellectual training alone.

In the first two tables we have separated the free from the slave states and territories, in order to show the proportions in these two great divisions of the country.

NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED IN SEVEN OF THE CLASSIFICATIONS OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, WITH THE PROPORTIONS THEY BEAR TO THE WHOLE NUMBER.

TABLE I.—FREE STATES AND TERRITORIES.	*Population in 1840.*	*Mining.*	*Proportion.*	*Agriculture.*	*Proportion.*	*Commerce.*	*Proportion.*	*Manufactures and Trades.*	*Proportion.*	*Nav. of the Ocean.*	*Proportion.*	*Nav. of Canals, Lakes, & Rivers.*	*Proportion.*	*Learned Prof. & Engrs.*	*Proportion.*	*Total.*	*Proportion to Population.*
	Persons.	*Persons.*	1 TO		1 TO		1 TO		1 TO		1 TO		1 TO		1 TO	*Persons.*	1 TO
Maine,	501,793	36	13,938 69	101,630	4.93	2,921	206.02	21,879	22.93	10,091	49.72	539	930.97	1,889	265.63	138 985	3.61
New Hampshire,	284.574	13	21,890.30	77,949	3.65	1,379	206.36	17,926	15.96	452	629 58	198	1,438.25	1,640	173.52	99.457	2.86
Vermont,	291,948	77	3,791.53	73,150	3.99	1,303	224.05	13,174	22.16	41	7,120 68	146	1,999.64	1,563	122.80	89,454	3.26
Massachusetts,	737,699	409	1,478.35	87,837	8.39	8,083	91.49	85,176	8.66	97,153	30.85	372	1,983.06	3,804	193.92	212,904	3.46
Rhode Island,	108,830	35	3,109.42	16,617	6.54	1,348	80.73	21,271	5.11	1,717	63.38	298	472.94	457	238.14	41,673	2.61
Connecticut,	309 978	151	2,052.83	56 955	5.44	2,743	113.00	27,932	11.09	2,700	114.80	431	719.90	1,697	176.76	92,609	3.34
New York,	2,428,921	1.898	1,279.72	455.954	5.32	28,468	85.32	173,193	14.02	5,511	440 74	10,167	238.90	14,111	172.12	689,302	3.52
New Jersey	373,306	266	1,403.40	56,701	6.58	2 283	163.51	27,004	13.82	1,143	326.60	1,625	229.72	1,627	229.44	90,649	4.11
Pennsylvania,	1,724,033	4,603	379.37	207,533	8.30	15 338	112.40	105,883	16.28	1,815	949 88	3,951	436.60	6,706	257.08	345 829	4.86
Delaware,	78,085	5	15,617.	16,015	4.87	467	167.20	4,060	19.23	401	194.72	235	332.27	199	3. 2.38	21,382	3.65
Ohio,	1,519,467	704	2,158.33	272.579	5.57	9,901	165.14	66,965	22.93	212	7,167.29	3,323	457.85	5,663	268.31	357,947	4.24
Indiana,	685,866	233	2,943 63	148,806	4.60	3,076	222.97	20,590	33.31	89	7,706 35	697	1,093.88	2,257	303.88	175 678	3.90
Illinois,	476,183	782	608.92	105,737	4.52	2,506	190.01	13,185	36.11	63	7 558.46	310	1,536.07	2,021	235.61	124,204	3.83
Michigan,	212,267	40	5,306.67	56,521	3.75	728	291.57	6,890	30.80	24	8 844.45	166	1,278.70	904	234.80	65 273	3.25
Wisconsin Territory,	30,945	794	38.97	7,047	4.39	479	64.60	1,814	17.05	14	2 210.35	209	148.06	259	119.47	10,616	2.91
Iowa "	43,112	217	198.67	10,469	4.11	355	121.44	1,629	26.46	13	3,316.30	78	552.71	365	118.11	13,126	3.28
Total—Free States,	9,807,007	10,353	947.26	1,751,100	5.60	80,658	121.58	607,771	16.13	51,439	190.65	22,605	433.84	45,162	217.15	2,569,088	3.81
TABLE II.—SLAVE STATES, ETC.																	
Maryland,	470,019	320	1,468 80	72,046	6.52	2,981	143.25	21,529	22.29	717	655.53	1,528	307.60	1,666	282.12	101,087	4.64
Virginia,	1,239,797	1,195	621 45	312,771	3.88	6,361	194.90	54,147	22.89	582	2,130.23	2,952	419.98	3,666	320.69	388,674	3.18
North Carolina,	753,419	589	1,279.14	217,095	3.47	1,734	434.49	14,322	52.60	327	2,304.03	379	1,987.91	1,046	693.75	235,532	3.19
South Carolina,	594,398	51	11,654 86	198,353	2 99	1,958	303.57	10,325	57.56	381	1,560.09	348	1,708.04	1,481	401.34	212 907	2.79
Georgia,	691,392	574	1,204.51	209,383	3.30	2,438	284.75	7,184	96.58	262	2 638 88	352	1,964.19	1,250	553.14	222,233	3.11
Alabama,	590,756	96	6,153.70	177,439	3.32	2,212	267.06	7,195	82.38	256	2,307.64	758	779.36	1,514	390.19	189,470	3.11
Mississippi,	375 651	14	26,832.21	139,724	2.68	1,703	288.29	4,151	90.49	37	11,383.36	100	3,756.51	1,506	249.43	146 831	2.55
Louisiana,	352 411	.....	.....	79,249	4.44	8,549	41.22	7.565	46.58	1,322	266.58	662	532.34	1,018	346.17	98 405	3.58
Tennessee,	829 210	103	8,050 58	227,739	3.64	2 217	374.02	17,815	46.54	55	15,076.54	302	2,745.72	2,042	406.07	250,273	3.31
Kentucky,	779,828	331	2,355.97	197,738	3.94	3,448	226.16	23,217	33.58	44	17,723.36	968	805.60	2 487	313.56	228,233	3.41
Missouri,	383,702	742	517.11	92,406	4.15	2,522	152.14	11,100	34.56	39	9 838 51	1,885	203.55	1,489	261.19	110,165	3.48
Arkansas,	97,574	41	2,379.85	26,355	3.70	215	453.83	1,173	83.18	3	32,524 66	39	2,501.89	301	324.16	28,127	3.46
Florida Territory,	54,477	1	54,477.	12,117	4.49	481	113.25	1,177	46.28	435	125.23	118	461.66	204	267.04	14 533	3.76
District of Columbia,	43 712	.....	.....	384	111.92	240	182.13	2,278	19.18	198	346.12	80	546.40	203	215.33	3,511	13.20
Total—Slave States,	7,256,346	4,857	1,493 99	1,968,851	3.68	36,949	196.11	183,978	39.38	4,582	1583.66	10,471	692.99	20,093	361.13	2,229,781	3.25
Total—Free States,	9.807,007	10,353	947.26	1,751,100	5.60	80,658	121.58	607,771	16.13	51,439	190.65	22,605	433.84	45,162	217.15	2,569,088	3.81
TOTAL,	17,063,353	15,210	1,121.81	3,719,951	4.58	117,607	145.08	791,749	21.55	56,021	304.58	33,076	515.88	65,255	261.48	4,798,869	3.55

NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED IN SEVEN OF THE CLASSIFICATIONS OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, WITH THE PROPORTIONS THEY BEAR TO THE WHOLE NUMBER.

Continued.

TABLE III.—SIXTEEN PRINCIPAL CITIES.	*Population in 1840.*	*Mining.*	*Proportion.*	*Agriculture.*	*Proportion.*	*Commerce.*	*Proportion.*	*Manufactures and Trades.*	*Proportion.*	*Nav. of the Ocean.*	*Proportion.*	*Nav. of Canals, Lakes, & Rivers.*	*Proportion.*	*Learned Prof. & Engrs.*	*Proportion.*	*Total.*	*Proportion in the whole Pop.*
	Persons.	*Persons.*	1 TO		1 TO		1 TO		1 TO		1 TO		1 TO		1 TO	*Persons.*	1 TO
Lowell, Mass.	20,796	.....	.....	84	247.57	212	98.09	8,936	2.32	2	10,398.	3	6,932.	72	274.94	9,309	2.23
Boston,	93,383	.....	.....	348	267.76	2,088	44.72	5 583	16.72	10,921	8.55	21	4,446.80	602	155.19	19,563	4.28
Providence, R. I.	23,171	.....	.....	142	163.17	929	24.83	3,948	5.86	422	54.90	90	257.45	165	140.43	5,696	4.06
Rochester, N. Y.	20,191	.....	.....	236	85.55	530	38.09	2,916	6.92	25	807.64	229	88.17	151	133.71	4,087	4.91
Albany,	33,721	.....	.....	144	234.17	35	963.45	1,691	20.80	8	4,215.12	106	318.12	237	142.28	2,151	15.67
New York,	312.710	63	4,963.65	2,773	112.76	11,365	27.51	43,390	7.20	2,786	112.24	716	436.74	2,929	106.76	64,022	4.72
Brooklyn,	36,233	2	18,116.50	1,597	22.68	1,673	21.65	4,666	7.76	978	37.04	302	153.08	307	130.59	9,525	3.80
Philadelphia and suburbs,	258,037	29	8,897.82	3,675	70.21	8,727	29.56	29,923	8.62	1,460	176.73	740	348.69	1,723	149.76	45,577	5.66
Pittsburg,	21,115	1	21,115.	4	5,278.75	580	35.84	2,345	9.00	9	2,346.11	948	85.14	133	158.75	3,399	6.34
Baltimore, Md.	102,313	1	102,313.	77	1,328.74	1,991	51.38	8,847	11.56	592	172.82	292	350.38	554	184.68	12,354	8.28
Washington, D. C.	23,364	.....	.....	26	898.64	103	226.83	886	26.37	45	519.20	25	934.56	83	281.49	1,168	20.00
Richmond, Va.	20,153	1	20,153.	5	4,030.60	692	29.12	3,792	5.31	12	1,679.41	.....	.....	134	150.39	4,636	4.34
Charleston, S. C.	29,261	.....	.....	153	191.24	676	43.28	1,625	28.54	292	100.20	30	975.36	226	129.47	2,402	12.18
New Orleans, La.	102,193	.....	.....	1,430	71.46	7,302	13.82	4,593	22.24	1,315	77.71	285	358.57	438	210.48	15,453	6.61
Cincinnati, O.	46,338	.....	.....	80	578.47	2,044	22.67	10,287	4.50	8	5,792 25	1,748	26.50	377	122.93	14,544	3.11
Louisville, Ky.	21,210	.....	.....	28	757.50	641	33.08	1,606	13.20	2	10,605.	488	43.46	142	149.36	2,907	7.29
TOTAL,	1,164,189	97	12,001.94	10,802	107.77	39,687	29.33	133,664	8.79	18,877	61.67	5,323	218.70	8,273	140.72	216,723	5.37
RECAPITULATION.																	
Total of States and Territories,	17,063,353	15,210	1,121.81	3,719,951	4.58	117,607	145.08	791,749	21.55	56,021	304.58	33,076	515.88	65,255	261.48	4,798,869	3.55
Total of Sixteen Cities,	1,164,189	97	12,001.94	10,802	107.77	39,687	29.33	133,664	8.79	18,877	61.67	5,323	218.70	8,273	140.72	216,723	5.37
TOTAL, except the 16 cities,	15,899,164	15,113	1,052.01	3,709,149	4.28	77,920	204.04	658,085	24.15	37,144	428.04	27,753	572.89	56,982	279.02	4,582,146	3.46

In connection with tables I. and II. it is necessary to make an addition on account of the naval force of the United States, which is stated at 6,100 in the census for 1840. The grand total of the whole population of the United States therefore, in 1840, was as follows:—

Population as per tables I. and II., ...	17,063,353
Persons employed in the naval service of the United States, ...	6,100
TOTAL POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, . . .	17,069,453

The number of persons employed in *mining*, in the several states and territories, generally, is small, being only 1 to 1,122 persons. In the territory of Wisconsin, it is 1 to 39. The next largest is Iowa. It was to be expected that there would be adventurers of this description in those new regions which are said to abound in mineral treasures. In Louisiana and the District of Columbia, there are none employed in mining. The proportion is somewhat larger in the slave portion of the country than in the free states.

The greatest proportion are employed in *agriculture*, the number being more than three fourths of the whole number in the seven classes of employment, and more than a fifth part of the whole number of inhabitants in the census. With the exception of the District of Columbia, where the agricultural supplies are chiefly derived from neighboring states, and in which the number is very small, being only 1 to 112 persons, the proportion employed in agriculture, from which the means of sustenance are chiefly obtained, is somewhat uniform through the states, being modified by the greater or less prevalence of manufactures and navigation, in some of the states. The *largest* proportion is in Mississippi, and next South Carolina. With the above exception, the *smallest* proportion is in Massachusetts, and the next in Pennsylvania. The average proportion in the slave states is considerably larger than in the free states.

It is worthy of remark, that in South Carolina and Mississippi, there are more persons employed in agriculture—an employment usually assigned to males, though not exclusively so—than there are males over ten years in the last state, by 10,420.

In respect to those employed in *commerce*, the average proportion in the free, is greater than in the slave states; in the former being 1 to 122, and in the latter, 1 to 197, while in all the states it is 1 to 146. The proportion is the *largest* in Louisiana, in which state is New Orleans, which is the depot for the commerce of the Mississippi valley. The next largest is in Wisconsin Territory, and the next in Rhode Island. The *smallest* proportion is in Arkansas; the next in North Carolina; the next in Tennessee; and the next in South Carolina.

The proportion of those employed in *manufactures and trades*, is 1 to 17 in the free, and 1 to 40 in the slave states, while in the whole country it is 1 to 22. The manufacturing interest is large in New England and the middle states. The *largest* proportion is in Rhode Island; next in Massachusetts; next in Connecticut; next in New Jersey; and next in New York. In Rhode Island the number is about four-fifths of the whole number of males over twenty years of age, and 54.05 per cent of the whole number of males of ten years and upwards.

Of those employed in the *navigation of the ocean*, we find the proportion unequal in the several states and territories; in Massachusetts, 1 to 31 of the population, which is the *greatest*, and the number amounting to nearly one half of those in all the states and territories. The next greatest is in Maine; the next in Rhode Island; the next in Connecticut; and the next in Florida Territory: while the *smallest* proportion is in Arkansas; next in Kentucky; next in Tennessee; next in Mississippi; next in Missouri; next in Michigan; the next in Indiana; the next in Illinois; the next in Ohio;—states which are removed from the ocean;—and next in Vermont, which is also at some distance from the ocean. The proportion is 1 to 191 in the free states, which is much larger than 1 to 1,584 in the slave states.

The number depends very much upon the situation of the different states as they border upon the ocean. It will be perceived, that more than a ninth part of the population of Boston are registered as employed in the navigation of the ocean, that they constitute nearly a fifth part of the whole number in this class, and that one sixty second part of the population of the sixteen cities containing 1,164,189 inhabitants, are composed of this class.

Of those employed in the *navigation of canals, lakes, and rivers*, the number in New York is the largest, being nearly a third part of the whole number, but the proportion is the *greatest* in Wisconsin Territory. All the states and territories furnish some, and the free states a greater proportion than the slave states.

In regard to the *learned professions and engineers*, the proportion is larger in the free than in the slave states; and singular as it may seem, the proportion is the *largest* in Iowa; next in Wisconsin; next Vermont; next New York; next New Hampshire; next Connecticut; and the next in the District of Columbia; while the *smallest* is in North Carolina; next in Georgia; next in Tennessee; next in South Carolina; the next in Delaware; and the next in Alabama. We find that in Hanover, New Hampshire, where there is a college and a medical school, there are 356 of this class, or nearly a seventh part of the whole population of 2,613; of whom only eleven are colored persons; and that they constitute nearly one half of 860, the number of free white males over twenty years of age. The number engaged in four other employments specified in the census, is 1,225 in this town. All the students in the college were probably counted, while at other places, as at Cambridge, they were not counted. Also, at Schenectady, New York, the number was 362, or nearly 1 to 18 inhabitants, where all the students may have been counted. We apprehend that no uniform rules were followed through the several states; and therefore, though the general result may be correct in respect to states, and to the Union, there may be important errors in respect to particular places. This remark, we believe, is also applicable to those employed in commerce in the several towns, for we find that in some of the towns in which we know there are persons employed under the name of *traders*, or country merchants, none are counted as employed in commerce.

The proportion of those employed in the learned professions, and as engineers, it will be perceived, is larger in the sixteen cities than in the whole country, as is to be expected from the nature of the case.

The proportion of those in these employments, in the several states and territories, with the exception of the District of Columbia, where the number is very small, varies only in the proportion of 100 to 256, to 100 to 487; while in the sixteen cities, the proportion is much more unequal, being generally less, but in Lowell, much greater than in any state, on account of the large number employed in the manufacturing establishments in that city. The average proportion in these cities is smaller than that in the states and territories.

Most of the persons included in these seven classes, are, from the nature of the employments, *males*. The whole number is 4,798,869; which is more than four fifths of 5,907,752, the number of all the males of ten years and upwards in the United States, exclusive of the naval service, and is less by 239,353 only, than 5,038,222, the whole number of males

over ten years, after deducting the 869,530 free white males between ten and fifteen.

As to the proportion of females included in the seven classes, we suppose they are mostly confined to the manufactures and trades. The number of the sexes are not specified in the census. In some manufacturing departments, such as the cotton and woollen factories, and the shoe business, a large number of females are employed.

According to the statistical tables, exhibiting the condition and products of certain branches of industry in Massachusetts, for the year ending April 1, 1837, and printed for the use of the legislature, the value of the products for the year was estimated at $86,282,616; the number of hands employed, according to the returns, 117,352; and the capital employed $54,851,643.

The following table shows the number of females employed, as specified in the abstract of the returns; the rest are specified as males, or returned as "hands employed," presumed to be mostly males.

PERSONS EMPLOYED.

Articles manufactured.	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Value of Articles.*
Cotton,	4,997	14,757	$13,056,659
Woollen,	3,612	3,485	10,399,807
Boots and Shoes,	23,702	15,366	14,642,520
Hats,	556	304	678,086
Paper,	568	605	1,544,230
Metal Buttons,	42	21	90,000
Combs,	254	190	268,500
Silk,	36	80	56,150
Total,	33,767	34,808	$40,735,952

On the supposition that the proportion of males to females, such as it was in Massachusetts in 1837, in respect to certain branches of manufacturing industry, prevailed in respect to those employed in manufactures and trades, according to the census of 1840, though we think the number of females thus employed in the whole country, would be less, as they are employed in those branches which prevail more in Massachusetts than in other states, the whole number of females thus employed would be 234,903.

In the sixteen cities, the number of persons employed in mining and agriculture is small, as was to be expected; and that of those employed in commerce is various, according as the prevailing business was commercial or otherwise. In this respect, New Orleans takes the lead of all the rest, having almost double the proportion of any other, as we should expect from its situation in relation to the valley of the Mississippi. We are unable to understand how that Albany, with a population of 33,721, has only thirty-five persons employed in commerce—a little more than 1 in 1,000 inhabitants. It will be perceived, that in these cities the proportion of merchants is considerably greater than it is in the whole Union. In manufactures and trades the proportion is various, but greater than in the whole country. Lowell here takes lead far before all others; and we are a little surprised but gratified to find that Cincinnati, the queen of the west, among the cities, comes next in respect to this branch of industry.

In the navigation of the ocean, and of canals, rivers, and lakes, the number obviously depends very much upon the local situation and the habits of the people of a former generation. Boston takes the lead in respect to those employed in the navigation of the ocean, having more than four times the proportion of any one of these cities, and having more persons than all these other cities, with not one eleventh part of their population. The proportion is greater in some towns in Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Florida Territory. In some parts of Massachusetts it is still greater. The proportion in Nantucket and Barnstable counties is over a sixth part of the population. Salem has 1 in less than 12 persons; Gloucester 1 in less than 7; Rockport 1 in less than 6; Dennis, Wellfleet, and Provincetown, 1 in less than 5; and Truro 1 in less than 4 persons. The ocean may be said to be almost the home of some of the people of certain towns in New England.

Of all these cities the proportion of those employed in the navigation of the ocean is 1 to 62 persons, while in the whole Union it is only 1 to 305.

Of those employed in the navigation of canals, rivers, and lakes, Cincinnati has the largest proportion. These cities have a much larger proportion than the whole country.

As to the learned professions and engineers in these cities, the largest proportion seems to be in New York, as is to be expected; next in Cincinnati; next in Rochester; next in Albany; then Providence; then Louisville; then Philadelphia. The smallest proportion is in Washington; next Lowell; next New Orleans. The proportion in these cities is considerably larger than in the whole country.

In respect to the whole number in these employments, Lowell takes the lead; nearly half of its population are included in the seven classes. Next comes Cincinnati; next Brooklyn; next Richmond. Washington has the smallest proportion; Albany next; Charleston next; and Baltimore next. Singular as it may seem, the proportion is smaller in these cities than it is in the whole country, and of course than in other parts of the country. In these cities there are in these employments 100 to 538 persons; in the whole country 100 to 356; and in other parts of the country 100 to 347 persons.

Art. IV.—PROTECTION TO HOME INTERESTS THE TRUE POLITICAL ECONOMY OF THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:

Sir—The free and independent character of your Magazine inviting a candid discussion of topics interesting to the great body of American readers, by whom it is liberally encouraged, induces me to offer the following address for publication; not because I suppose that the doctrines it contains and the objects professed in it will gain the unanimous assent of the patrons of your useful journal, but because you have a class of intelligent and untrammeled readers on the subject of political economy, including those honestly differing on the policy of Free-trade, so called, and the Home Protective system, who will fairly judge whether there be any merit

in the principles herein set forth. The party papers of the times are cold friends to any disquisition, or free association that professes honestly to have a neutral character, even if it is strictly patriotic in its tendency. Ultraism in every thing is the fatal folly of our countrymen. Truth must be spiced to make it palatable, reason tricked off in fashion's frippery, and patriotism metamorphosed with some party-livery, or they will find little chance of printers' favors or public approbation. Americans scarcely seem to feel that they have a country and a destiny of their own, and duties to perform as Americans of the highest value and consequence. Political capital is every thing—national character a secondary consideration.

Thus having no home, as it were, for the soles of our feet, many of our countrymen appear actually driven to foreign protection for a solace. Foreign nations are espoused by us; foreign dogmas, uncongenial to our time and country, are caught up and republished here as sacred truths. Every thing about us must bear a cosmopolite character, or at least be stamped with some party brand, to prevent its being "flat, stale, and *unprofitable*."

But *every thing* is perhaps too strong a term to use, for in the present instance I turn to you, sir, and to the pages of your Magazine, as a refreshing exception to the general vogue. And I trust that your example will be more generally followed, and that we who profess to be a "free, sovereign, and independent people," may in future give more proof of our consistency. Of foreign and party vassalage we have had enough, and although I am willing to admit the freest international and commercial intercourse, on reciprocal principles and a proper party spirit at home; yet, for one, I long to see a home-bred, sturdy sense of native patriotism imbuing our citizens generally, and the union and honor of these six and twenty states—nations as they are, advancing "terribly peaceful as they go" to the consummation of their great destiny—a subject of hearty pride to all Americans.

The home league associations in the United States, now spreading like the temperance societies, are neutral in their creed as to politics, but pledged to principles strictly national in their character. Time will show their influence.

By giving circulation to the following notice you will confer a favor on the writer. H.

ANNIVERSARY OF THE HOME LEAGUE.

The friends of American industry throughout the Union are apprised that during the last annual exhibition of the American Institute in this city, an association was here formed by a convention of citizens from all parts of the country, denominated "THE HOME LEAGUE *for the protection of American Labor and the promotion of reciprocal Commerce.*" It was composed of representatives from the agricultural, manufacturing, commercial, and industrial interests generally, without reference to any sectional or party bias. Its principles and objects are now known. A widespread influence and the formation of more than a hundred auxiliary leagues, co-operating in the diffusion of useful information and the advancement of our domestic concerns, are sufficient proofs of its utility and well-timed establishment.

It is now the duty of the central committee, appointed by and in behalf

of the primary league, to announce to its associate branches and to the public generally, that the first annual meeting for the choice of officers and the transaction of business appertaining to the association will be held at the Lyceum of Natural History, 563 Broadway, in this city, on the 13th day of October next, at 11 o'clock, A. M., when a general attendance of its members, and those who wish to become such, will take place without further notice.

An address to the people of the United States, setting forth the general views of this association, has already been circulated throughout the country, and has met with marked approbation. From an institution scarcely yet a year in existence, it cannot be expected that any boast will be made of what it has done, and still less of what it is likely to achieve. No banners are displayed to aid party strife or to excite popular commotion; but converts from all parties and associations in all sections of the country have joined its ranks with a proper spirit of independence, to establish, peaceefully and permanently, a union of interests distinctly AMERICAN, in opposition to those anti-national and unpatriotic dogmas which have lately been undermining our character and prosperity as an independent and sovereign people.

In the two conventions, which have been held in furtherance of its objects, a harmony of action and consistency of conduct were manifested, which not only proved the Home League to be above servility to local and party prejudices, but by the diffusion of a mass of useful and timely information, and the fearless expression of sound and patriotic views, an interest has been everywhere awakened in its favor, so that now its warmest advocates are among those who first questioned its utility, and derided the possibility of its independence. The statistical facts collected in the course of its numerous meetings in this city, aided by publications giving the result of their discussions to the people at large, have essentially aided in the formation of a tariff as indispensable for revenue and the basis of a sound currency as for protection to domestic industry. The baneful and deceptive doctrines of free trade which an insidious foreign rival was commending to our adoption, without deigning to prastice them herself, have here been successfully combated, and it is now no longer a heresy to protect our home concerns or to foster a commerce that is truly reciprocal.

To carry on the great objects for which such an association was formed, and is so manifestly qualified to promote, the central committee feel themselves privileged to urge upon their fellow-citizens of all parties and in all the states throughout the Union to continue the efforts already commenced, and to form state and county leagues to aid in completing the good work thus auspiciously commenced. Much yet remains to be accomplished, which the narrow aims of party discipline would neglect or subvert to its own selfish purposes. A special vigilance is necessary to watch those who are the chosen guardians of the public weal, to see that our legislators accomplish the work for which they were appointed, and should their patriotic efforts to relieve our present embarrassments be defeated, to hold ourselves in readiness to call public meetings for the protection of our home interests, at all hazards to sustain those and those only who constitutionally enact laws for the relief of our suffering country, and to prevent our birth-right from being bargained away for the offals of foreign free

trade—these are some of the duties and privileges that belong to The Home League, and which it will faithfully perform.

It is one of the cardinal principles of our association that the government and people of this country owe it to themselves to protect American industry and enterprise, wherever and however developed. With advantages greater than any other nation possesses, the United States have rightfully assumed a higher stand, and are bound to maintain a loftier and freer character in a moral and political point of view than any other community. Our laboring classes especially set out to be better educated, better clothed, and better fed than the oppressed operatives of foreign countries. But to maintain this ascendancy at this moment is no easy task. Low labor and low prices prevail everywhere. The old world seems going generally into a state of liquidation, and there is scarcely an article we produce or manufacture which cannot or may not be produced in some foreign country at a less price than we can produce it here. Our carrying trade too, and our fisheries, and in short all the labor of our hands, are interfered with when placed in competition with the depressed labor of Europe, or that of its lower reduced colonies.

Now, unless our working men are ready to abandon the benefits of education, the comforts of decent apparel, and the wholesome living to which they have been accustomed, we must guard against foreign competition by securing a preference to the labor of our own citizens, whether native or naturalized, and to our legitimate home interests. We have no other alternative, for the benefit of the laborer or capitalist; for it cannot be doubted that it is for the interest of the capitalist to pay a higher rate of wages to the free American who supports himself independently, rather than to give lower rates to such degraded and pauper dependents as are maintained by poor laws in foreign countries. Nor will the delusive doctrines of free trade help us. That demands the exchange of labor for labor—an eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth, whatever be their character. It is only by a judicious protection to our own skill and industry that our working classes can be secured in their privileges. The half-starved, half-clothed, and ignorant foreign serf can and must work cheaper than we do, and of course the purchasers of his labor will, in an open market, have an advantage. It is worse than idle to be blind to this conclusion. The rates of labor form the standard of value whereby to estimate the moral and mental improvements of a nation in comparison with others. Skill, talent, industry, order and enterprise create capital. Good government protects these; and just in the same way that a superior workman obtains higher wages than a poor one, so does a nation, possessed of the above advantages, take the lead of other nations, and as long as it can maintain a high rate of wages by the above means, it will be pre-eminently prosperous.

But the representative of this value of labor being money, it should be measured by a uniform standard, and not by a fluctuating currency, which, it is said, is the cause of the present distress. Now, what is the existing state of our money value as the representative of other values? We have no national bank. The business of the government is done upon a specie basis. The currency of those states which have any paper is nearly equal to specie. If the wages of labor therefore decline, it will not be owing to banking in any way. For the future, if we behold our laborers without employ, trade paralyzed, and the wages of all our working classes

going down, we must impute these evils to some other cause than that arising from a paper currency. A real want of work at home in consequence of employing operatives abroad to work for us, paid by our specie or the products of sectional and not general labor, is the true cause. Look where we may, we witness this result. The dismantled state of our American shipping, the monopoly by foreigners of what little carrying-trade there is, the suspension of our manufacturing enterprise to give employment to needy operatives abroad, the restricted trade and non-intercourse between all parts of our once flourishing country, the plethora attributed to over-production and diminished consumption in our agricultural and mechanical pursuits, the downward tendency of all values save that of money, whereby capitalists alone are benefited, and they but transiently, the exposure of the destitute to crime and suffering, the destruction of principle, so prone to follow that of property,—these are actual miseries, which, for the want of a protective system, the American laboring classes are doomed to see and feel.

But the committee fully believe that the country is not compelled to submit long to this degraded condition. There is no need that our young and puissant nation should be overlaid or overreached in the throes of distress which now convulse the starving millions in the old world; nor, however deeply we may commiserate their sufferings, is it necessary that we should throw ourselves into their wretched condition. That policy which seeks to level the wages of free American labor to a servile or pauper standard, cannot be tolerated by our industrious and better educated citizens. The high character assumed by us is capable of being sustained. The bounties of Providence now everywhere smile upon our fields. Skill, enterprise, the will and strength to work, the advantages of education and freedom, which, with proper encouragement, are odds in our favor against the world, a cheap soil and every variety of climate, secure to us success if we only have the wisdom to embrace it. Some concessions and alterations may have to be made by us to the changing state of circumstances, but it is by a protecting and fostering care over our home interests, that we shall be enabled surely and permanently to regain our prosperity. A national commerce among ourselves must be encouraged. A motive-power from our own government must come in the shape of a protective tariff, equal in its countervailing power to all the emergencies we may be thrown into by foreign interference—a tariff securing home industry and home competition, not for the benefit of monopolists nor of the government merely, but *for the whole country, rewarding labor, remunerating capital, and equalizing prices.* This, as we believe, is the necessary result of the system we advocate, the league and the only league we are bound to.

The statistical reports emanating from our last convention, have already done much to convince the public of the ability of our countrymen, with proper protection, to sustain themselves as a free manufacturing, agricultural, and commercial people. We now invite the various branches of our association to continue to furnish such reports, and to correct any errors which may have appeared in those already published. Let the employed operatives meet in their respective districts to consult together, and devise the means to give a new impulse to the hand of labor; let them appoint delegates to express their wishes and views at the convention, and co-operate with us to restore to the country its former prosperity. Let the farmers of the interior look at the state of the republic, and having a

regard to the whole country, let them meet us through their delegates, to represent their feelings in behalf of American industry, and of those classes who furnish a market for the productions of the soil and prevent them from being dependent on foreign workshops for fabrics of the first necessity. A due preparation of measures to be acted upon at our next meeting, will essentially facilitate the execution of what will there have to be adopted, and as every interest in the country is deeply connected with the protection of labor and the prosecution of reciprocal commerce, we trust our citizens generally will unite in our patriotic labors

The committee in conclusion will only repeat, that in whatever section of the country these sentiments may be promulgated, whatever party, or whatever trade may espouse them, it is hoped implicit faith may be placed in their sincerity, and if delegates are appointed to meet us, that they will bring with them a determination and the means to carry out our views. We again assert what was contained in our former address, that "to promote domestic interests the Home League was established, without reference to party distinctions, and to impress upon our public representatives the propriety of guarding and promoting those interests, our efforts will be directed. The occasion is propitious and the necessity urgent; and we call upon all those who love their own country above all others, who prefer domestic to foreign interests, to unite their exertions to ours, until the concentrated efforts of the friends of American interests shall be crowned with complete success, and a policy truly American and national be found to prevail in every department of our government.

Joseph Blunt, N. Y.	Melvin Copeland, Conn.
C. C. Haven, N. Y.	Benjamin Reeves, Pa.
Adoniram Chandler, N. Y.	Wm. B. Kinney, N. J.
Geo. Bacon, N. Y.	Geo. B. Holmes, R. I.
R. H. Pruyn, N. Y.	T. B. Wakeman, N. Y.
Henry Burden, N. Y.	L. D. Chapin, N. Y.
Charles S. Morgan, Va.	Wm. G. Lambert, N. Y.

Central Committee.

Art. V.—MORALS OF TRADE.—No. VII.

Were we to omit to consider, before we conclude these papers, the general motives that induce to the occupation of the merchant, they would be more imperfect than they are necessarily from the periodical division of the subject.

It has been attempted to show that some of the customs of trade are fundamentally wrong; that they cannot bear the test of those great moral principles which must lie at the foundation of all permanently successful action. In no spirit of censure, but in respect for justice and right, we have spoken of long-established customs as wrong. And it is believed that an easy solution of the question, "How did these customs gain their authority with the business community?" is found in the nature of the motives which, in nine cases in ten, lead young men to the choice of their occupation.

And here the successful merchant will laugh in our face, and hardly repress a sneer, when we say, that the motive of amassing wealth merely,

is an unworthy one; that the great business of the trader is not *to make money*. Now it is generally understood that this is the motive that ought to inspire him; and we have not yet recovered from the effect of that juvenile literature, which almost always ended the last chapter by putting the *good boy* in a carriage and four, with a great many servants about him, and attended by a tall lady, with a long plume in her hat, as his wife, the possessor of unbounded wealth. The making of money has been held out as the crown of virtue, the great end of life. You must do this to ensure success in business; and you must not do that, because it will injure —what? your conscience? no; your character? no; because it is a sin against right? no; what then? My good sir, it will injure you in your business. And this has been the language of the moral corner of the newspaper, the burden of "maxims for rising in the world" to be found in counting-house manuals; indeed it has too often been the language of parental counsel and advice.

Is it not a fact that too large a ratio of our population is engaged in trade? If it is so, then it follows, as a matter of course, that evil will arise from it. If all are successful in this disproportion, they must be so by breaking into the rights of some other departments of human industry; there is want of balance, and there must be disorder. The evil may be patched up and be made to wear a fair outside; but it is an evil, and will produce disorder, sometimes here and sometimes there. As when some one of the essential organs of the body is diseased or clogged, pain follows, sometimes of one kind and sometimes of another; in one, disturbing the digestion; in another, affecting the lungs; so in the body politic from overtrading, or overproducing: then follow evils which are not traced always to their true cause. They are attributed to the times, to the government, to providence, to any cause that shifts the responsibility from off the shoulders that ought to bear it.

Bad customs creep into trade to make amends for some fault; as men cure a burn by fire and remedy poisons by poisons. Hence many conventional rules, when judged by abstract principles of justice, are found to be false and immoral.

But why happens it that so large a ratio of the population of the United States are engaged in trade? Where lies the charm that turns so many of the young men into the counting-room, so many of the tender boys behind the counter? Is it not that *making money* is the peculiar business of our people? Trading is encouraged among boys by their parents. The farmer likes to see his son *cute* at swapping knives and kites, and winks at the grasping urchin when he carries eggs the hen did *not* hatch to the store, and argues from his young deviltry great hopes for his future usefulness and honor. Now money is a sure means of influence in this country or any other. Property will have power. It ought to have it. It has it by the law of God. It is a law of nature. But in a republic where any office is possible to any man, is it strange that that which most quickly and most surely gives influence should be especially regarded as desirable? Is it strange that the accumulation of money should be taught among the earliest lessons of youth, as their chief aim and surest road to consequence and influence?

Many persons are fond of grounding their arguments against republican institutions, in the divine right of kings and the natural inequalities in human condition; and they tell us, we cannot last long as a republic, for

this and that reason. If we are in any danger it is from this cause, and not from the ones they assign; from using corrupt means to gain power and influence; from dishonesty and fraud in trade, to make that money which will elevate the possessor. This is the great danger we ought to fear as a republic, *too great a thirst for money, and too little scruple how it is acquired.* With us emphatically it may be true, that "the love of money is the root of all evil."

It is constantly asserted that intelligence alone can render our institutions permanent; but what do we mean by intelligence, unless that faculty of putting a right estimate upon things; of valuing money as second to virtue and honesty; of clinging to good principles in all respects as we do to life? What is intelligence unless it is these and more? Now we have shown that every republican is tempted with unusual temptation, from the nature of the case; that the facility of gaining power, and rank, and influence, by the accumulation of money, will induce him to give it the first place in his affections; and ambition will whisper to him short cuts to fortune, with only a *little* sacrifice of principle. Unless he is an honest man, or highly educated moral man, will he not listen to these suggestions? But how is the danger increased, if besides the temptation to give money the first importance in his thoughts, from the reasons above stated, his early education has been such, that he is led to consider property the chief good in life? Now we contend that such is the education of great numbers of American youth; and hence it is that the occupation of trade is crowded in every city and village in the union. If there is a smart lad in the district school, who is quick at figures, and has a manly bearing and a ready wit, he is seized by some retail country merchant and put behind his counter to be educated by hearing all sorts of language and stories. We do not care to draw the picture, but appeal to the observation of all who are familiar with the tone of conversation generally going on in the village store, concerning politics and religion and the common scandal, what are likely to be the impressions of a boy in such scenes. There the infidel takes his daily seat to scoff at religion; there the mad politician vents his oaths and curses; there cases of crim. con. are discussed with unblushing boldness, and the horrible crime of the seducer is treated as a good joke, while the owner of the establishment, glad to have his store popular, laughs and smirks at coarse wit and obscene jests, content to pocket his small profits, and make it all right at church, by looking remarkably grave and devout on the next Sunday. In process of time the smart boy grows to a young man and goes into business on his own account, either in the city or the country, with this kind of moral training. Now we ask if it is strange that wrong customs should creep into trade?

We again assert that it is generally understood, that the great business of the trader is to make money. The speculator rushes into the market as the horse goeth to the battle. He smelleth the profits afar off. He braves the fevers of the south; he tempts the anger of the ocean; he seeks the wilds of the Indian, and runs the hazard of his life with strange and uncivilized hordes of barbarians, that he may amass a fortune. He doeth for money what he would not do to save the life of a brother. It is, sink or swim, live or die, with him. He is educated to think that his social condition depends upon this game, and he plays it desperately indeed; and it must be confessed that he often shows a perseverance, an ardor and en-

thusiasm that would make him a hero in a noble cause. And we often read of his privations, dangers, and successes with deep interest and sympathy; until coming to analyze his conduct, we find that the thirst for gold lies at the bottom of the action, and what would have been heroic, becomes paltry and selfish. Our admiration is at an end; the motive has debased the romance into a common fact.

Now it is admitted that all pursuits take their origin in the wants of men; that food is sought to appease hunger; that water is drawn to quench thirst; that beasts are hunted for food and for clothing: but, as men have advanced in civilization, the easy satisfying of the mere wants of the body has opened other sources of pleasure and profit; food is arranged tastefully in dishes that gratify the eye; water is drank from chased goblets; clothing is arranged in graceful drapery, and the shelter from the storm becomes the expressive architecture of the temple. These are a step beyond the first; but there are still steps beyond, which are of a far higher nature than those ministering to animal gratification and the pleasures of sense. The great glory of civilized life is not because it refines upon the wants of the body, but that it recognises the intellect and the soul; while the savage state, with all its wild freedom, untamed passion, and unfettered desires, considers only the physical nature. He who uses the discoveries, arts, and inventions of civilized man for the purchase of higher degrees and longer continuance of the gratification of the lower appetites, is a baser being than the savage.

What is the motive that should govern men in trade, if not to *make money?* asks some one who has given the subject little thought, and who, perhaps, with another, thinks the title of these papers very queer. These are precisely the men we design to reach in our remarks—those who have, thus far in life, supposed that to make money was the whole object of trade, and so that was done without infringing the laws, very little more could be said upon the subject.

The making of money is an essential part of trade, as it respects the individual, but we would ask if trade might not be carried on without any one accumulating a fortune by it? The term comes from *trado*, to deliver; it originated in the custom of exchanging the goods or productions of one country for those of another, and is precisely upon the principle by which men are distributed into trades; each one practising a certain art for the use of the rest, and receiving in turn from each of the others a proportion of their manufacture. It is the division of labor principle applied to a case where the individuals are nations. We can readily imagine a system of exchange to be carried on, by which each nation should receive a quota from all the others, by which the wants of all should be satisfied and yet no one accumulate any thing. But if one nation is more industrious than the rest, and if they use the productions they gain by the exchange to greater advantage than those who produced them; if they apply the arts to them, refine them by chemistry, polish and adorn them by taste and skill, and quadruple their value in various ways, here is a legitimate gain, and this is the way money should be made. Indeed, it is the way much money *is* made; but where money-making is the whole object of life, there are other means which offer of obtaining it; such as the imitating of foreign articles and selling them as genuine; buying up an article and then rising upon the price of it, &c. We say that these will be often resorted to where money-making becomes the passion of life.

And certainly we can imagine patriotic motives in trade; and if we can manufacture for ourselves we may be glad of it, because of the independence of position it affords us as a nation, separate from all motive of pecuniary gain. Indeed, we see not why it is necessary that the whole soul of the merchant should be bound up in his gains, more than other occupations. He may pursue it as employment; to support his family and the government under which he lives; to ensure to himself competency and a home; to purchase for himself the elegancies and refinements of life: and when he has done these, it is very questionable if he has any *moral* right to enslave his soul, in adding to an already large fortune, or to use the influence and power his money gives him, to the prejudice of others who are struggling on in days of small beginnings in the hope of a competency.

The business of the trader, as well as of the mechanic and farmer, should hold the second place in his thoughts; the first being occupied with the cultivation of his moral and intellectual nature. We see not why a man may not engage in trade from as pure and high motives as we suppose him to have who preaches the gospel. Both ask a support, as necessary to their labor; but money is not the chief motive with either. The one may feel deeply for the temporal prosperity of his countrymen, while the other thinks of their spiritual interest. Or take any of the professions;—should we not think meanly of the physician who seemed chiefly occupied in the pecuniary profits of his business? Or of the lawyer, who had no enthusiasm for his noble profession, as an intellectual system, but should pervert it into a means of amassing wealth at all sacrifices? And why, then, we ask, shall trade be degraded from a system of fair exchange into a strife for loaves and fishes?

We trust, that as purer and higher motives induce to the occupation of trade, it will be freed from many of the customs that now oppress it; and besides, that there will be fewer of those terrible fluctuations which rest like black and threatening clouds over our devoted country.

Art. VI.—PREFERENCES BY INSOLVENTS.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:

The Merchants' Magazine begins to assume the position of an arbiter of disputed points, and its decisions cannot be treated with indifference, whether they are announced as the voice of the editor, or sanctioned by his admission. This creates a new responsibility, both in the oracle and those who question it, involving the necessity and duty of frank discussion. It has not been supposed, that the habit of putting cases in casuistry, exercised a very important influence on practical morality; but the doubt sprung from its abuse, and it is too evident that beyond the pulpit and the bar, there has been little inquiry into the rectitude of what was customary among the brotherhoods of social labor. The necessity of inquiring beforehand what course men ought to pursue is conceded, and the topic proposed is of cardinal importance.

Is it then true, that men have been misled, hitherto, in the sentiment which has prompted insolvents to protect certain classes of creditors?

There are some considerations involved in the relation of the parties supposed, which induce dissent from the argument put forward to discredit all preferences. A partial view is the most familiar source of fallacy, and the argument in question betrays it. The obligations of the borrower are insisted upon to society at large, and his nearer relation to the lender and the surety are considered as subordinate. This relation ranks as that of the highest confidence; and it has been and still is the common sentiment of the world, that the highest fidelity should respond to the highest confidence. And here is found and felt, the sound, sufficient justification of the preference given by a failing merchant to what are called, by way of eminence, confidential debts; a name which carries in itself the force of a vindication of the preference granted to them.

Another source of fallacy is traced in the argument, which if not by affirmation, at least incidentally, treats the lender and endorser as conspirators with the insolvent to defraud. And every loan and every endorsement is regarded as the desperate expedient for postponing bankruptcy. It will not do to say, that it treats of cases of insolvency, and that this condition of insolvency is a postulate of the proposition. The discussion cannot govern the relation of borrower and lender in the accident of insolvency alone. If it is to exercise practical influence, it must begin where the relation begins. Endorsements and loans are as widely extended as civilized commerce. And the denial of their privilege must be made with a sure calculation of their discontinuance or restriction. It may well be taken for granted, that the generous exchange of this intercommunion among merchants at large, is beneficial to society. And if the argument is intended to meet the whole case, it must begin by a demonstration of the evil of all faith and trust in trade.

It may well be doubted too, whether an early bankruptcy, in all cases of uncertain adventure, is for the benefit of creditors. This assertion seems to have been caused by too restricted a view of facts, painfully pressed upon us in this country for the last twenty years. It may be granted, without yielding the whole proposition, that the mad use of credit here during that time, (which has vitiated trade, in common with all social employments, and melted away into one foul stream of corruption public and private morals,) has given plausible grounds for concluding that the man who totters will resort to hopeless expedients for support. But who does not rejoice at the stability which is procured by generous aids to great traders overtaken by unforeseen disaster, maimed by political convulsion, or paralyzed by commercial panics? Every thinking man congratulates himself, and the society with whose prosperity he is identified, with the sure instinct of his and their interest, when public confidence escapes the shock of a threatened downfall. And in a preceding number of this publication, the necessity and *duty* of shunning an avowed insolvency, as long as there can be a hope that effort will retrieve the threatened ruin, is insisted upon. It may be safe to appeal to the prompt judgment of practised men of action in any walk of life, whether it would not be wiser to hope, that the person whose familiarity with his affairs, and whose personal motives mingle with his efforts for success, is not more likely to redeem from embarrassment, involved and doubtful adventures, rather than rest upon the official indifference of a substitute, who must be more or less a hireling, shadowed as the name is by proverbs.

This abuse of credit, of twenty years, added to the want of a stable law

of bankruptcy, undoubtedly caused a fatal facility in unfair assignments. But the result seems not chargeable upon the relation of borrower and lender, or surety, or their conceded privileges according to usage; it is due to wider influences, which could not be enumerated here.

So strong is the conscience of men on this point, that judges in chancery have assumed it as a necessity of our moral nature; and presuming that the proclivity of the insolvent, would be always sufficiently distinct in favor of his near associates, have been prone to lean on the other side, and decree that he who trusts most should suffer most. They hope in this way to approximate the equality which they are fond of considering as equity. The protection of his friends is left to the impulses of the unfortunate. As these officers are called to represent generally the community of creditors, their tendencies are consistent with their function. They hold the position adverse to that of the insolvent and his confidential friends, and so far from fixing the rebuke of injustice and immorality upon fidelity in this relation, they imply the reasonableness of the privileges now opposed. But does not the very name of fidelity conclude the argument. A fidelity not narrowed, as it might seem upon superficial views, to partial and inferior obligations, but extended as widely as the mutual dependence of men in society, and forming the basis of all commercial faith and trust.

LOOKER-ON.

Charleston, S. C.

ART. VII.—ORIGIN OF PAPER MONEY.*

THE celebrated traveller, Marco Paulo, of Venice, was the first person who announced to Europe the existence of paper money in China, under the Moguls. It was subsequently introduced by the Moguls into Persia, where their ntoes were called djaou, or djaw, a word evidently derived from the Chinese word schaio.†

The fact of the Moguls having, in China and Persia, made use of paper money, has induced many authors to suppose that they were the inventors of it. The celebrated Schloetzer, of Gottingen, for instance, has published a dissertation under the following title: "The Moguls inventors of paper money in the 13th century." This learned man, however, would have avoided such an error if he had perused the history of Tchinghiz-khan, and of the Mogul dynasty in China, composed from the Chinese authorities by P. Gaubil, and published in the year 1739, about 60 years before M. Schloetzer wrote his work. In this history he speaks of the suppression of the paper money, which was in use under the dynasty of the Soung, who reigned in China previous to the Moguls; and he also mentions a new species of notes which were substituted for the ancient, in the year 1264, by the minister Kia-szu-tao. The original financial speculation of the

* Translated from the French of Julius Klaproth, as read by him to the Asiatic Society, in their sittings of the 1st of October, 1822.

† The Chinese character is composed of kin, (metal,) and chao, (little,) and is thus intended to signify the want of specie. It is very remarkable that the Chinese use this word also when they wish to convey the idea of taking any thing by force, or robbing another person of his property.

Chinese ministry, to provide for the extraordinary expenditures of the state, which was exceeding the revenues, was in the year 119 before the Christian era, under the reign of the emperor Ou-ti, of the great dynasty of Han. At this period was introduced the phi-pi, or value in skins. These were small pieces of the skin of deer, which were kept in a pan within the precincts of the palace. They were a Chinese square foot in size, and were beautifully ornamented with painting and embroidery. Every prince or grandee, and even the members of the imperial family, who wished to pay court to the emperor, or who were invited to any public ceremony or repast in the palace, were obliged to cover with one of these skins the tablette which they held before their faces in presence of the son of heaven.

The minister of the household had fixed the price of these skins at a sum equal in English money to about 12 guineas. They were current at this price in the palace and amongst the nobles, but it does not appear that they were ever used in trade, or by the people. Matouanlin states, that from the year 617 of the Christian era, to the end of the dynasty of Soui, the distress and disorder in China having reached their height, every possible substitute for money was used. He particularly mentions small pieces of round iron, bits of cloth, and even pasteboard. At the commencement of the reign of the emperor Hiant-soung, of the dynasty of Kang, which was about the year 807 of Christ, copper money being exceeding rare,* the use of that metal for any domestic purpose was prohibited. The emperor compelled all traders who arrived in the capital, and, generally speaking, all moneyed persons, to deposit their cash in the public treasury; and for the facility of trade, they received in exchange a sort of promissory note or bond, which was called fey-thsian, or flying-money. At the end of three years, however, the use of this paper money was suppressed as to the capital, and it had currency only in the provinces. Kai-tsu, the founder of the dynasty of Soung, who ascended the throne in the year 960 of the Christian era, allowed traders to deposit their money, and even their goods, in the imperial *treasury*, and gave them in exchange a note, which was called pian-thsian, or convenient money. These notes were eagerly sought after in consequence of their convenience. In 997 the quantity of paper money in circulation represented 1,700,000 ounces of silver; and in the year 1021 the quantity was increased to 3,000,000 ounces. It was in the country of Chou, which is, in our days, the province of Szu-tchhouan, where the true paper money, as a substitute for money, without being guarantied by any sort of mortgage or security, was first introduced.

These notes were introduced to supply the place of iron, which was found to be too heavy for commercial and general purposes.† They were called tchi-tsi. Under the reign of Tchin-tsoung, from the year 997 to 1022, the example was followed, and new notes were made, which were called kiao-tsu or change; they were payable every third year, so that in

* The scarcity of copper arose from the vast quantity of this metal used for bronze images, sacred to Fo, and the saints of his religion. Thus after every persecution of the sect, copper became more plentiful.

† The first iron money was made in China by the rebel Koung-sun-chou, who died 36 years after Christ. It was not until the year 524, however, that his example was followed by the Chinese emperors.

65 years there were 22 periods for payments: each kiao-tsu was equivalent to 1,000 deniers, and represented an ounce of pure silver. Sixteen of the principal houses in the empire were at the head of this financial operation; but, in the end, these persons were unable to fulfil their engagements, and became bankrupts. The emperor, in consequence of the distress which this failure brought on the public, abolished all the notes of this society, and resolving that in future no individuals should have the power of creating paper money, established a bank at Y-tcheou, for notes. Towards the year 1032, the quantity of paper money in circulation, in China, represented 1,256,340 ounces of pure silver. In 1068, some daring speculators began to counterfeit the notes of the government, and a great number of forgeries were discovered. The authors of the fraud were subjected to the same punishment as that which the law decreed against those who forged the seals of the state. In course of years, banks were established for the issue of notes, in various parts of the empire; the notes of one province, however, were not current in the other, and the whole mode of circulation and liquidation was frequently altered. Under the emperor Kao-tsoung, in 1131, the government was desirous of creating a military establishment at Ou-tcheou, but as the funds necessary for the undertaking were received very tardily, the mandarins who were intrusted with the management of the plan, proposed to the Hou-pou, or minister of the treasury, to issue kouan-tsu, or notes, with which they might pay those who supplied provisions to the army. These notes were payable at an office opened for the purpose, but they gave rise to many abuses, and caused the people to murmur; not long afterwards, however, similar notes were put in circulation in other provinces of China.

In 1160, under the same monarch, the Hou-pou created a new paper money, which they called Hoci-tsu, or agreements. In the commencement these notes were only current in the province of Tche-kiang, and its immediate neighborhood, but they soon became general throughout the empire. The paper which was used for them, was at first manufactured only in the cities of Hoci-tcheou and Tchi-tcheou, of Kiang-nan, but ere long it was made in several other places. The first Hoci-tsu were like the paper money previously in circulation, worth 1,000 deniers, or an ounce of silver; in the following reign, however, they were made for 500, 300, and 200 deniers. In the short space of five years there were 28,000,000 ounces of notes in circulation, and in the space of the following eleven months, the quantity was further increased by an issue of notes to the amount of 15,600,000 ounces. During the existence of the same dynasty, the amount was increased annually; besides these notes, there were the kiao-tsu, and the other paper money peculiar to the provinces, to such an extent, that the country was inundated with notes which daily decreased in value, notwithstanding the modifications which the government had recourse to, to prevent it. In the reign of Ly-tsoung, of the same dynasty, in the year 1264, the minister Kia-szu-tao, seeing the low value of the notes, and the high price of provisions, called in a great quantity of the former, and supplied their place with new notes, which he styled ynkouan, or money lands; but notwithstanding all the exertions of the minister, he was unable to raise the value of the notes, or to reduce the price of provisions. Whilst the last emperors of the Soung dynasty now retired in the south of China, the north of the country was under the dominion of the Niu-tchy, a race who had formed a new empire under the name of Kin,

or the Kingdom of Gold, their princes are spoken of by the Arabian and Persian authors, under the title of Altoun-khan. The continual wars in China had impoverished all the provinces of this fine country to such an extent, that copper was become exceedingly scarce in the kingdom of Kin, and recourse was had to a bank for the issue of paper money, on a similar plan to those which have already been noticed. The notes for 2, 4, 8, and 10 ounces of silver, were called large notes, and the smaller were for 100, 300, 700, and 900 pieces of copper. The period of their currency was fixed for seven years; at the expiration of this term the old notes were exchanged for new ones. There were banks in every province, and the government took fifteen pieces of copper on every 1,000 to cover the expenses. Towards the latter part of the thirteenth century the Moguls became masters of China, where they founded a dynasty which lasted from 1279 to 1367. Before the entire conquest of China, Chi-tsou, the first emperor of this dynasty, had introduced paper money, (between the years 1260 and 1263.) In 1284, he commanded the mandarin, Lou-chi-joung, to present him a plan for a new paper currency, but the emission of it did not take place until the year 1287; from that period the Moguls continued annually to increase the quantity of their notes, which were called pao-tchhao, or precious paper money. From the year 1264 to 1294, a note was in circulation which replaced that of 1260 to 1263, and which were made from the bark of the tree tchu, (morus papyrifera,) and were a Chinese square foot in size. Towards the latter part of the dynasty, paper money had lost much of its credit, and an alteration was made in 1357, with the hope of restoring it, but every effort was vain, and the Moguls were obliged to quit China, which they had totally ruined by their precious paper money. The distress of the country was such, that the Ming emperors, who succeeded the Moguls, were not only unable to abolish the paper in circulation, but compelled to issue new notes. In 1375, six different sorts were issued, of the value of 500, 400, 300, 200, and 100 pieces of copper, equal to an ounce of silver. The use of gold, silver, and precious stones, as a medium of payment, was strictly forbidden. The value of the notes soon fell in the proportion of nearly 20 per cent. In the year 1448, the quantity of notes was so considerable, that only three deniers of specie were given for a note of 1,000. Every attempt was made, by compulsive measures, to restore the paper currency to a better condition. The taxes on the markets of both capitals were even allowed to be paid in paper, but every attempt was fruitless, and the notes went out of circulation; at least history makes no mention of them later than the year 1455. The Mandchous who succeeded the Ming emperors, and who are now masters of China, have never attempted to introduce a paper currency, for these barbarians are happily ignorant of the European policy, which declares that the more a nation is in debt, the more it is rich and flourishing.*

* The notes of the Soung, Kin, and Moguls, were made of the bark of the tchu, printed and sealed by authority. Those of the Ming were of paper made with different plants, and richly ornamented.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS IN MASSACHUSETTS.*

LIABILITIES OF COMMON CARRIERS.

Circuit Court.—Citizens' Bank, libellants, *vs.* Nantucket Steamboat Company.—This case came before the circuit court by appeal from the decision of the district court, which was in favor of respondents. The facts proved were, that a package of *bank bills* was intrusted by the bank to the captain of the steamboat Telegraph, plying between Nantucket and New Bedford, to be delivered at the latter place, but that it never reached its destination, having been in some way or other lost by the captain, or stolen from him.

The libellants sought to recover the amount of this loss from the proprietors of the boat, on the ground that they were common carriers of merchandise for hire, and responsible, as such, for the default or negligence of their agents; and if, as carriers of merchandise, they were not liable for the safe carriage of bank bills, yet that as the captain, their agent, in their employment, and in the lawful exercise of that employment, had undertaken to carry bank bills, the company were liable for his neglects.

The respondents showed that bank bills had been frequently intrusted by banks and individuals at Nantucket to the captains of vessels, and to the captain of their boat, to be delivered at various ports on their routes; but that this was considered a mere personal trust of the captain's, and that compensation had rarely been paid for these services, and when so, it had not been claimed as a matter of right, but received merely as a gratuity. And the respondents contended, that in the absence of proof that they had ever held themselves out as carriers of bank bills, and the custom of captains to carry money at their own risk having been proved, and in this case the captain of the boat having taken charge of these bills in his private capacity, and not as agent of the company, nor for the benefit of the company, they could not be held to answer for this loss.

The court (Judge Story) sustained the grounds taken by the respondents, and gave judgment in their favor.

United States District Court.—John Harding, libellant, *vs.* Owners of steamboat Maverick.—This was a libel brought by the mate of brig Souther against the owners of the ferry-boat Maverick, which plies between the city and East Boston, to recover for an injury done him, through the carelessness, as alleged, of those in charge of the boat.

The brig was warping from one wharf to another, and had a warp running across the dock to and from which the ferry-boats run; but before he could get his vessel across, the ferry-boat returned. Some one called to him, "Slack up your line." He proceeded to do it as soon as possible; but before he could get it clear, the boat, keeping on her course, caught the warp and drew it out with great rapidity, and one of the libellant's legs becoming entangled in a coil of the rope, he was thrown down and dragged forward to the catheads with great force, and one of his legs broken in two places, and the other very severely bruised and torn.

The court (Judge Sprague) gave judgment for the libellant, and the parties not being able to agree upon the amount of damages, fixed them at $1,400.

PROMISSORY NOTE.

Supreme Judicial Court.—Mackay *vs.* Holland.—This was an action against defendant, as maker of a promissory note for $600, payable to Nester Houghton, of New York, and by Houghton endorsed to one Vose, and by Vose to the plaintiff. The note was originally given to Houghton, *without consideration*, and as collateral security for any

*Reported for the Merchants' Magazine, by Allen C. Spooner, Esq., of the Boston bar.

amount which might become due from G. W. Holland (defendant's brother) to said Houghton, upon G. W. Holland's failure to indemnify Houghton for certain advances and liabilities which Houghton was under on G. W. Holland's account. The note was transferred by Houghton, *after it was due*, and at a time when the balance between Houghton and G. W. Holland was in Holland's favor.

The court said that upon these facts the defendant was clearly not chargeable, being entitled to make the same defence in this case which he could have made to a suit by Houghton, unless he had waived that defence by some act or admission of his own. It was upon an act of this sort that plaintiff relied, viz: that he showed the note to defendant, and asked him if it was due; and defendant said, "*I suppose I am liable, and will pay it.*" This promise, the court said, was without consideration; and if the defendant was liable at all, it must be on account of some concealment, or some affirmative representation, upon the strength of which the plaintiff took the note. It did not appear that defendant knew of the state of the accounts between Houghton and G. W. Holland at the time plaintiff took the note, nor that he was not liable; he had not, therefore, made any false representation, or concealed any thing, but had stated the best of his knowledge and belief. And it did appear that when plaintiff showed the note to defendant, he stated that *he had already taken it.* A party taking a note over-due and dishonored, takes it at his peril, and is bound to know all its infirmities. On the whole, the opinion of the court was, that the defendant not being liable on the note when Houghton negotiated it, had not made himself so by any thing he had done or omitted since, and ordered judgment to be entered for the defendant.

MARRIED WOMAN—DIVORCE.

Pierce *vs.* Burnham.—This action was brought upon a promissory note, given by defendant in settlement of a judgment against her son, she being at that time a married woman, but divorced from bed and board, and living separate from her husband. The question was, whether the disabilities of a married woman still adhered to her, so that she must be sued in conjunction with her husband, and could not be sued alone. And the court held, that a married woman, divorced from bed and board, may hold property, make contracts respecting it, sell and transfer it, bring actions necessary to defend it, and sue and sued. Judgment for plaintiff.

LIABILITY OF BAIL.

Way *vs.* Wright and others.—In this case it was held, that the imprisonment of the principal, in execution of a sentence for perjury, discharged the bail.

NON-IMPRISONMENT LAW OF CONNECTICUT.

The law recently passed by the Connecticut legislature to abolish imprisonment for debt, enacts—

That no person shall be arrested, held to bail, detained or imprisoned, upon process, mesne or final, founded on contract merely, express or implied, any law or custom to the contrary notwithstanding.

Provided, That in all actions for tort, and in all actions for fines and penalties, or on promises to marry, or for moneys collected or received by a public officer, or by any person while acting as trustee, or in any fiduciary capacity, or for any misconduct or neglect in office, or in any professional employment, and in all actions on the case at common law for fraud, (and which actions on the case are hereby authorized,) alleging fraud against any person in fraudulently or collusively obtaining credit, or in fraudulently contracting any debt, or incurring any obligation, or in fraudulently, with intent to defraud the plaintiff in such action, concealing, removing, withholding, assigning, or conveying away from legal process his property of any kind, or choses in action, or in fraudulently keeping back his money or means, on a debt admitted, or recovered by judgment, or in withholding or refusing to disclose or avow his rights in actions or credits, so that they may be reached by process of foreign attachment: in all such cases and actions, the defendant may be held to bail, arrested, or imprisoned, with the same means of release and discharge of his body, as provided in said actions by existing laws.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

At the date of our last number, the defeat of the tariff bill before Congress had produced some uneasiness in the public mind. Nothing tends so much to unsettle business and to retard activity in trade as fluctuating or uncertain governmental regulations in relation to commercial matters. The compromise tariff had been progressively in operation for ten years, until its own provisions were fulfilled, and its authority terminated by limitation in July. Congress had, however, enacted no new law to supply its place. The executive, in this exigency, supposed itself invested with sufficient authority to collect the revenues according to the general principles prescribed in the compromise act, as those which should thereafter govern Congress in any new laws on the subject which it might enact. In prosecution of this view, the duties were collected at a rate not exceeding twenty per cent on the home valuation. This manner of collecting the revenues led to great complaint, because necessarily done in a most arbitrary manner. In importing French goods, for instance, the appraisers would, in many instances, persist in valuing an invoice at thirty cents the franc as the market value of the goods here, when the importers would be glad to sell them at a value of twenty-five cents to the franc. On English goods the home valuation was arrived at by adding fifty or sixty per cent, as the case may be, to the face of the invoice, deducting one sixth of the amount, and adding twenty per cent to the balance for the duties. The deduction of one sixth was in order not to cast the freight upon the duty. Notwithstanding these difficulties the duties were low, and were such as, perhaps, had they been legalized, would have been best for all parties. Such, however, is the chilling effect of uncertainty upon the markets, that notwithstanding the probability of a large increase in the duties, the imports were small. Most unexpectedly, the tariff bill, which had been vetoed, was revived and passed, with the objectionable section, repealing the conditions on which the land distribution act of last year was passed, stricken out. When this became a law, notwithstanding the many bad features which it contained, business seemed to receive a new impulse. A feeling of security came over the market, and the prices of those articles on which the highest duties had been laid greatly improved. The direct effect of the tariff seemed, however, to have a less beneficial effect than its indirect effect. The passage of the law, by removing a cause of uneasiness that long had hung over the public mind, gave those general causes of reviving prosperity room to develop themselves: these were, abundance of goods and produce at low prices, with plenteousness of money. These are elements which cannot, in the nature of things, long exist simultaneously without producing their natural result—inactivity of trade. The uncertain state of the government finances had induced caution on the part of capitalists and dealers long after produce and goods were supposed to have reached their lowest points. The policy of the government being once defined and developed, that cause for uneasiness was removed, and the way so far cleared for action.

The remaining difficulty is the condition of public credit, involving the standing of that vast banking system on which the business of the United States has hitherto been conducted. A revolution, deep, radical, and all-pervading has undoubtedly overtaken that system, and wrought a change so far as to force the reviving trade into new channels, on a new basis. The attempts which were made last year to check the downward tendency of the paper system, and restore the old order of things, through the instrumentality of a national bank, entirely failed. The establishment of such an institution, with a restoration of bank credits, cannot now be reasonably looked for, at least for five years to come. In the mean time, the impulse which has now been given to business

cannot seriously be checked by any external causes, but will progress, roll onward, and expand itself, calling forth the energies of the people, developing the resources of the country, increasing the national wealth, and placing the prosperity of the people in a position proof against the practices of the Bank of England. The fact that banking credits have nearly ceased to exist at those points where the largest collections of agricultural products change hands, is a guaranty that most, if not all, the business which is to grow out of the present and future crops, must be conducted without their agency. In order to illustrate this we may state that from New Orleans more than one third of all the exports from the United States of domestic growth is made, and that upwards of $50,000,000 of the produce of the valley of the Mississippi is annually received at that port. With this premise, we may now trace the banking movement at that point from time to time since 1830, giving the monthly return for three cotton seasons since 1839, when the last suspension took place, with the corresponding rates of specie and sight checks on New York:—

BANKS OF NEW ORLEANS.

Year. Month.	*Loans.*	*Specie.*	*Circulation.*	*Deposits.*	*Rate of Specie.*	*Checks on New York.*
1830, January,	6,796,351	1,492,674	1,301,483	2,016,560	...	...
1835, June,	37,388,839	2,828,904	5,114,082	7,106,628	...	...
1836, August,	51,234,158	2,607,587	7,130,546	11,744,712	...	...
1837, January,	59,108,741	3,108,416	7,909,788	11,487,431	...	...
May,	50,852,018	2,327,821	6,586,978	10,152,711	...	...
Decemb.	55,593,371	2,729,983	7,558,465	7,426,468	...	...
1838, March,	52,058,084	2,970,723	4,734,739	8,021,137	...	...
Decemb.	56,855,610	3,987,697	6,280,588	7,657,161	...	...
1839, October,	49,138,700	2,847,487	4,341,533	4,928,076	8	2
Novemb.	48,860,902	2,768,114	5,233,136	5,182,904	7½	4
Decemb.	49,861,143	2,504,725	5,526,785	6,118,651	3	2½
1840, January,	52,027,697	2,525,969	5,804,130	6,048,218	4	3
February,	52,597,402	2,900,375	6,683,043	6,186,526	4	4
March,	52,623,659	3,154,351	6,931,224	6,525,866	4½	5
May,	50,730,457	3,575,228	7,112,793	7,221,554	6	6¼
June,	48,654,884	3,533,495	6,827,226	6,670,665	6¼	6½
July,	48,437,628	3,365,635	6,558,262	6,427,671	6	6¼
August,	48,558,770	3,614,534	6,130,284	6,297,675	6	6¼
Septemb.	48,537,633	3,526,300	5,781,799	6,039,300	5	6
October,	48,416,060	3,432,407	5,618,545	6,308,294	3½	3
Novemb.	48,663,357	3,388,298	5,916,031	6,550,889	2½	1¾
Decemb.	48,646,799	3,160,243	6,443,785	7,020,263	1½	1½
1841, January,	49,226,189	3,220,973	7,369,352	7,271,285	1½	1¼
February,	48,946,163	3,422,155	7,565,595	7,564,512	4	3
March,	49,165,948	3,317,123	8,046,765	8,128,261	5½	6
April,	49,532,656	3,355,974	8,886,356	8,789,091	5	5
May,	48,404,535	3,406,108	8,849,883	8,497,507	6	6¼
June,	48,462,800	3,406,004	8,254,171	7,859,929	5	5¼
July,	48,351,200	3,171,806	7,502,167	7,144,185	4½	4¼
August,	45,952,643	2,912,654	6,822,668	6,306,969	3	3½
Septemb.	46,143,034	3,067,348	6,264,416	5,968,585	1½	2½
October,	45,392,276	3,013,757	6,084,375	6,081,518	1¼	3
Decemb.	45,157,791	2,338,524	5,870,375	4,912,252	4½	3¼
1842, March,	33,301,028	2,296,231	4,033,162	4,819,791	7	4
April,	35,970,600	2,263,900	3,707,719	4,750,153	6	5½
June,	35,443,442	1,084,148	1,449,950	2,130,204	par	1
July,	35,374,934	1,026,847	2,384,162	3,355,066	"	2
August,	34,212,829	904,737	1,922,083	2,743,322	"	3½
Septemb.	33,247,740	1,208,459	1,733,114	2,619,364	"	¾

This table gives a pretty accurate view of the banking movement at that important point. The capital of all the banks in New Orleans was, in 1830, $4,665,980. This

was increased to $39,943,832 in December, 1837, a period of seven years. This capital was held or procured as follows :—

Procured in Europe, mostly on the credit of the state,.....	$20,725,080
" " other United States,.....	6,945,710
" or held in Louisiana,.....	12,273,042
Total capital paid up,.....	$39,943,832

This capital was subsequently increased to $41,711,214. The increase of banking facilities at this rapid rate was evidently in advance of the real business of the city, which in the same period had increased fifty per cent only. The bank credits constantly accumulating, sought other than legitimate channels for their employment, at the same time that they greatly facilitated speculators in obtaining the means of operating in cotton—the principal article of export from New Orleans. The market for that article became altogether speculative under the influence thus exercised; and, by a singular inversion of things, the rate at the same period throughout a season would always be higher in New Orleans, the point of purchase, than in Liverpool, the principal market of consumption. Operations were always for a rise. If, through overproduction, or an untoward state of affairs abroad, the market was checked, a long chain of reclamations and discredit followed, which made its evil influence felt throughout the Union, particularly in New York, where the sterling bills were mostly negotiated. During the last few years the cotton market has been a losing one. The consequence has been that the means of the southern banks have been gradually locked up, until, during the last spring, five of those of New Orleans found it impossible to go on even in a state of suspension, and they failed, reducing the capital by $4,458,617. The failures of those banks were very disastrous. Nine others, with capitals of $29,633,190, attempted to resume, and could not sustain it. They have now a circulation of $1,613,000, at a depreciation of ten to forty per cent. The first five failed in March last, and are now in liquidation. Their loans and liabilities are deducted in the preceding table. The two outer columns of the rate of specie and sight checks on New York indicate the depreciation of the currency through all the period of suspension which took place in October, 1829, the last time. Since June last, the quotations are for specie, or the bills of the Bank of Louisiana, which continues to pay. This arises from the fact that the bills of the suspended banks are no longer taken, except for their specie value. How far those banks will be able to recover themselves, so as again to resume, is matter of doubt. Under the present law, the banks are required to retain in their vaults $1 for every $3 of their bills in circulation, with the exception of the real estate banks, which are allowed ninety days. The courts meet on the 1st of November, and probably by that time most of them will have complied with the requisition. We have here then an outline of the remarkable manner in which capital has been drawn into banking at New Orleans, and been sunk by the inherent vices of the system. In all sections of the country the same general features have and do exist. All that capital which, during the undue excitement of the years subsequent to 1832, was drawn into banking by the operation of speculation in raising prices and creating an extraordinary demand for money, has, in the general fall of property, ceased to exist, leaving, however, active, as much capital as is necessary for the transaction of business. The quantity of money required for the interchange of commodities may be illustrated by the comparative value of the crops of cotton and flour, which are the most valuable, for the years 1837 and 1838, according to the average market value for each year. The average crop of cotton, for the last seven years, has been 515,280,000 pounds, and of flour 20,000,000 barrels. These would represent, at the average prices, the following sums :—

1837.		1841.	
Cotton, 515,280,000 lbs. a 15c.	$77,292,000	515,280,000 a 8c.....	$41,222,400
Flour, 20,000,000 bbls. a $10,	200,000,000	20,000,000 a $5.....	100,000,000
Total,.....	$277,292,000	Total,.....	$141,222,400

Here is a difference of $136,069,600 in the money value of two articles of domestic growth, requiring in so much less the facilities of banking capital in their exchange. The prices of both these articles depend entirely upon the foreign market that may be obtained for them, because the production is greater than the consumption in this country. The money price will, therefore, be the specie values of the countries of consumption, governed by the demand there. Hence the amount of capital required for their exchange here can only bear a proportion to the quantity produced, governed by the money price created abroad. The prices of these two articles govern those of almost all others. When the wreck of the old redundant capital is cleared away, which will now shortly be the case, nothing will prevent a long season of solid prosperity.

Money has been and is very plenty. Thus far the fall trade has failed to create sufficient business paper for the employment of even the reduced bank capital of the city. The amount of specie is large and accumulating. It flows in from foreign countries, and finds its way to the interior, where, after performing its legitimate functions, it will settle at those points at which its presence is most needed. Notwithstanding this plenteousness of money, the operations in stocks have been limited for investment. The "fancy" or non-dividend paying stocks have been quite neglected, speculation having almost altogether ceased. Bank stocks, from the constant explosions and the developments of mismanagement and defalcations, as well as from the decreasing business, are no longer desirable as an investment. Since our last, one other New York safety fund bank, the "Bank of Lyons," has been enjoined at the instigation of the bank commissioners. The circumstances of the failure afford another instance of the baleful influence of bank credits in produce speculations. The stocks of the several states have not been in demand, with the exception of New York state and corporation. The comptroller of the former has issued proposals for a new loan of $250,000, seven per cent stock, being the balance of the loan authorized at the last regular session of the legislature. The state of Pennsylvania, which failed in August last on the interest of its debt, has since advertised its public works, for the construction of which those debts were contracted, for sale, to take its stock at par in payment. That stock is nominally at forty cents on the dollar in the market. This being the peculiar position of the debt of the state of Pennsylvania, we will here annex a table of the leading works, with their extent, cost, and aggregate revenue and expenditures for ten years, from 1830 to 1840, inclusive:—

COST, REVENUE, AND EXPENDITURES OF THE FINISHED LINES OF PENNSYLVANIA CANALS AND RAILROADS.

Name and Description.	*Miles.*	*Cost.*	*Revenue.*	*Expendit.*
Eastern Division of the Pennsylvania Canal—Extends from Columbia to Duncan's Island,.....	43	$1,734,958	$1,047,826	$429,805
Juniata Division—Extends from Duncan's Island to Hollidaysburg,.....	130	3,437,334	491,104	592,180
Western Division—Extends from Johnstown to Pittsburg,.....	105	2,964,882	887,013	889,834
Delaware Division—Extends from Bristol to Easton,.....	60	1,374,774	586,515	638,831
Susquehanna Division—Extends from Duncan's Island to Northumberland,.....	39	867,874	141,730	314,253
North Branch Division—Extends from Northumberland to Lackawannock,.....	73	1,491,894	63,559	390,624

PENNSYLVANIA CANALS AND RAILROADS, ETC.—*Continued.*

Name and Description.	*Miles.*	*Cost.*	*Revenue.*	*Expendit.*
West Branch Division—Extends from Northumberland to Dunnsburg,	72	$1,708,579	$60,859	$333,738
French Creek Division—Extends (including the feeder) from Franklin to Conneaut Lake,	45	784,754	4,767	133,979
Beaver Division—Extends from Beaver to Newcastle,	25	522,258	10,924	139,082
Columbia and Philadelphia Railway—Extends from Columbia to Philadelphia,	82	3,983,302	1,205,419	585,343
Railroad Tolls,			824,319	862,074
Motive Power,				436,579
Locomotives, Ropes, &c.				
Allegheny Portage Railway—Extends from Hollidaysburg to Johnstown,	38	1,783,176	413,504	293,135
Railroad Tolls,			443,480	539,507
Motive Power,				122,236
Locomotives, Ropes, &c.				
TOTAL,		20,653,791	6,181,624	6,694,206

In addition to this, there are the following canals in progress, and nearly completed:—

North Branch Extension, from Lackawana to New York line, ... miles	90
Erie Extension, from Greenville to Erie Harbor,	63¼
Wiconisco Canal, from Duncan's Island to Wiconisco Creek,	12¼
Total, miles of canals in progress,	165½

These have cost nearly $10,000,000, making the total funded debt, with money borrowed to pay interest and other expenses, $36,331,005. The property of the state is as follows:

The value of public improvements, estimated at cost, is	$29,292,165 33
The state owns bank stock which cost, at par	2,108,700 00
The state owns turnpike and bridge stock	831,778 66
The state owns railroad stock	350,546 00
Money due on unpatented lands, estimated at	1,000,000 00
Total	$33,583,189 99

The works may become valuable, but as seen in the above table, in ten years, including a most prosperous season, the expenses exceeded the receipts $512,585, independent of the interest on the debt contracted for their construction. We have gone thus into details, because it is a novel feature in the money market for an independent state to become bankrupt, and tender its property for sale in payment.

Some doubts have been entertained in relation to the payment of the next interest, by the states of Arkansas, Alabama, and Ohio, but assurances have been received from the proper quarter that the payments will be promptly met.

The federal government has hitherto not been enabled to sell any part of the loan, for the negotiation of which agents were despatched for England. In the mean time Congress has so far amended the law authorizing the loan, as to forbid its being sold under par; and has also authorized the issue of $6,000,000 of the amount in the form of treasury notes. The presence of these notes is now daily looked for in the market. They will greatly increase the amount outstanding beyond what it has ever been before. The following is a table of the amount outstanding, at the close of each month, for the last four years.

UNITED STATES TREASURY NOTES OUTSTANDING ON THE FIRST OF EACH MONTH, FOR A SERIES OF YEARS.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
January	7,343,948	2,758,331	4,652,991	6,840,723
February	6,813,862	2,570,340	4,804,719	—
March	6,552,946	2,176,981	5,393,094	8,539,115
April	7,590,492	1,422,555	6,301,324	—
May	6,963,554	1,256,985	6,862,990	7,434,729
June	6,062,288	2,052,056	8,063,563	9,100,904
July	5,458,542	2,123,717	8,345,695	9,077,006
August	5,160,430	3,476,937	8,305,336	8,903,818
September	4,519,937	4,966,502	7,265,660	8 771,999
October	3,707,380	4,560,689	7,373,024	
November	3,394,180	4,664,200	7,371,705	
December	2,998,071	4,433,833	7,228,857	

The $6,000,000 to be issued will increase the sum to near $15,000,000. The notes are to some extent absorbed as a medium of exchange at this season of the year, and also, while the funds of the banks are in search of employment, they form a desirable investment, being available at any moment. They are also in demand for the payment of duties, when the discount upon them is sufficient to make that operation an object, which is however scarcely now the case, the rate being but ½ discount. The department has been very backward in issuing the notes, in the hope that some negotiations for a sale of the stock could be effected. This has operated very unfortunately for the creditors of the government. They have many of them been obliged to sell their claims upon the department at a discount of 1 per cent to those very capitalists whose negotiations, real or pretended, have prevented them from being paid. The revenues of the government are, as we have before hinted, not likely to be improved under the new tariff; on the contrary, importing and shipping business seems to have received a severe check. Many vessels that were put upon the stocks before the passage of the tariff have been countermanded since.

In relation to the state of New York, some uneasiness has been manifest in relation to the result of the coming elections: inasmuch as an increase of debt and extension of the internal improvements is thought to be identified with one of the contending parties. In connection with this subject, we have constructed from official documents the following comparative table of the progress of the debts of the states of New York and Pennsylvania.

	NEW YORK.		PENNSYLVANIA.	
Year.	*Am't borrow'd in each year.*	*Am't paid in each year.*	*Total of state liabilities at the close of each year.*	*Pennsylvania debt at the close of year.*
1825			7,737,770	1,680,000
1826	377,000	270,000	7,844,770	1,980,000
1827	500,000	94,615	8,250,155	2,980,000
1828	220,000	21,000	8,450,155	5,780,000
1829	387,000	333,942	8,516,013	8,370,000
1830	150,000	30,977	8,635,035	12,070,000
1831	240,263	9,653	8,865,645	14,965,661
1832	561,500		9,427,145	17,614,341
1833	178,886	1,566,310	8,127,656	20,655,002
1834	1,044,876	638,830	8,584,525	22,920,402
1835	129,453	782,160	8,007,035	24,400,002
1836	650,000	691,778	8,005,785	24,400,002
1837	919,973	1,026,912	7,954,114	24,400,002
1838	4,350,761	365,011	11,953,852	25,200,002
1839	2,139,185	67,300	14,025,738	31,724,002
1840	4,497,297	138,139	18,385,309	35,936,002
1841	3,609,414	33,770	21,960,953	39,508,147
1842	3,814,182	10,544	25,764,590	

We have before seen the condition of the Pennsylvania state works. We may now take the following table of the business of the New York state canals, since their commencement.

BUSINESS OF THE NEW YORK STATE CANALS.

	Number of boats arr'd at, & clea'd from, Albany.	*No. of lockages west of Schenectady.*	*Tons going from tide-water.*	*Tons arriving at tide-water.*	*Tolls.*
1824	8,760	6,166	34,136	—	340,642
1825	13,110	10,985	33,438	—	566,279
1826	—	15,156	35,435	302,170	765,104
1827	—	13,004	—	—	859,260
1828	23,662	14,579	56,792	—	838,444
1829	21,490	12,619	52,621	—	813,137
1830	23,874	14,674	70,154	—	1,056,922
1831	26,882	16,284	86,945	—	1,223,801
1832	25,826	18,601	—	—	1,229,483
1833	31,460	20,649	119,463	—	1,463,820
1834	32,436	22,911	114,608	553,596	1,341,329
1835	36,690	25,798	128,910	753,191	1,548,986
1836	34,190	25,516	133,796	696,347	1,614,336
1837	31,082	21,055	122,130	611,781	1,292,627
1838	32,120	25,962	142,808	640,481	1,590,911
1839	31,882	24,234	142,035	602,128	1,616,382
1840	30,456	26,987	129,580	669,012	1,775,747
1841	33,782	30,320	162,715	774,334	2,034,882
1842		(September 1st.)			907,000

The tolls this year, as compared with 1841, thus far, present a diminution of 20 per cent. This table gives an increase in the returns of the canals, for a series of years, but does not show any material increase in the number of boats or tons transported, that should warrant any great outlay of expense to increase the facilities of transportation. It appears that the average tolls for the last seven years has been $1,804,554; and for the previous seven years $1,239,639—being an increase of $564,915. In the same period the debt has increased $17,758,705, bearing interest $1,065,522 per annum; making an excess in the increase of expense over the increase of means of $500,607. This does not afford much encouragement for the further increase of debt, and such a step would undoubtedly severely injure credit.

The advices from Europe by the late arrivals, are of a very favorable nature in regard to the revival of business in England. Money was exceedingly plenty, and the harvest full: There was, however, no improvement in affairs connectied with the United States. The fall in produce precludes the hope of any very extended markets for that of the United States growth; and no cause existed for a return of confidence in the public securities. On the contrary, there was every reason for increased distrust. It was very apparent that England would require no increased supply of corn, a circumstance which, although favorable to an increased consumption of cotton, precluded the hope of any enlarged operations in other produce of the United States. The crops of France, however, and the eastern coast of Spain, were largely deficient; a circumstance that will lead to an outpouring of United States produce in that quarter, as well as to Algiers, South America, the West Indies, and those other markets which are wont to draw their supplies from Europe. The returns for this produce will, under present appearances, be mostly in specie.

New York, September 25, 1842.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

THE NEW BRITISH TARIFF.

DUTIES OF CUSTOMS PAYABLE ON GOODS, WARES, AND MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM FROM FOREIGN PARTS.

Articles.	*Of or from For. Countries.*	*Of or from Brit. Poss.*
Goods, wares, and merchandise, being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, and not prohibited to be imported into, or used in Great Britain or Ireland,	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
Goods, wares, and merchandise, not being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, and not prohibited to be imported into or used in Great Britain or Ireland,	5 per ct.	5 per ct.
Acetous Acid (see Vinegar)	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Acorns, ...bushel	0 1 0	0 0 6
Agates, ...for every £100 value	5 0 0	5 0 0
Ditto, set,	15 per cent.	
Alabaster, (see Marble)		
Ale, ...barrel	2 0 0	2 0 0
Alkali, not being Barilla, ...cwt.	0 1 6	0 1 6
Alkanet Root,	0 1 0	0 1 0
Almonds, (not Jordan or Bitter)	0 10 0	0 10 0
Jordan,	1 5 0	1 5 0
Bitter,	0 2 0	0 2 0
Paste of,	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
Aloes, ...pound	0 0 2	0 0 1
Alum, all sorts, ...cwt.	0 2 0	0 2 0
Amber, rough,	0 5 0	0 5 0
Manufactures of, (not enumerated)	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Ambergris, ...ounce	0 0 3	0 0 3
Anchovies, (see Fish)		
Angelica, ...cwt.	0 4 0	0 4 0
Annatto, roll and flag,	0 1 0	0 1 0
Aniseed, ...cwt.	0 5 0	0 5 0
Antimony, ore of, ...ton	0 1 0	0 1 0
Crude, ...cwt.	0 2 0	0 0 6
Regulus, ...cwt.	0 4 0	0 1 0
Apples, raw, ...bushel	0 0 6	0 0 2
Dried,	0 2 0	0 2 0
Aquafortis, ...cwt.	0 5 0	0 5 0
Argol,	0 0 6	0 0 6
Aristolochia,	0 1 0	0 1 0
Arrowroot, ...cwt.	0 5 0	0 1 0
Arsenic, ...cwt.	0 1 0	0 0 6
Assafœtida (see gum)		
Ashes, Pearl or Pot,	0 0 6	
Soap, weed and wood,	0 0 6	Free.
Not enumerated,	5 per ct.	
Asphaltum, ...ton	0 1 0	0 1 0
Asses, ...each	0 2 6	0 1 3
Bacon, ...cwt.	0 14 0	0 3 6
Balsam Canada, ...pound	0 0 1	0 0 1
Capivi, ...cwt.	0 4 0	0 4 0
Peru, ...pound	0 0 3	0 0 3
Riga,* ....pound	0 0 1	0 0 1
* And further as foreign spirits, ...gallon	1 2 6	1 2 6
Tolu, ...pound	0 0 2	0 0 2
Balm of Gilead, and all balsams not otherwise enumerated or described,	0 0 6	0 0 6
Bandstring, twist, the dozen knots, each containing 32 yards,	0 5 0	0 2 6

Articles.	*Of or from Fgn. Countries.* £	s.	d.	*Of or from Brit. Poss.* £	s.	d.
Barilla, ton	0	5	0	0	5	0
Barbadoes Tar, cwt.	0	2	6	0	2	6
Bark, Peruvian, Cascarilla, and other sorts, cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Do. for tanners' or dyers' use,	0	0	3	0	0	1
Extract of, or other vegetable substances to be used only for tanning leather,	0	1	0	0	1	0
Barley, pearled, cwt.	0	5	0	0	2	6
Basket Rods, peeled, not exceeding 3 feet in circumference at the band, bundle	0	0	6	0	0	6
Unpeeled, bundle	0	0	3	0	0	3
Baskets, for every £100 value	10	0	0	10	0	0
Bast ropes, twines, and strands, cwt.	0	5	0	0	2	6
Beads, coral, jet, Arango, not otherwise enumerated or described	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Beads and bugles of glass, pound	0	0	3	0	0	3
Beans, Kidney and French, bushel	0	0	10	0	0	5
Beef, salted, not being corned beef, from and after 10th Oct. '42,	0	8	0	0	2	0
Fresh, or slightly salted,	0	8	0	0	8	0
Beer or Mum, barrel	2	0	0	2	0	0
Spruce, barrel	1	0	0	1	0	0
Beeswax, cwt.	0	2	1	0	1	0
Bleached,	1	0	0	0	10	0
Berries, Bay, Juniper, and Yellow, cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Not enumerated, commonly made use of in chemical processes, ton	0	1	0	0	1	0
Berries, (Fruit) not enumerated, cwt.	0	2	0	0	2	0
Birds, viz: singing birds, dozen	0	8	0	0	8	0
Bitumen Judaicum,	0	1	0	0	1	0
Blacking, cwt.	1	0	0	1	0	0
Bladders, dozen	0	0	3	0	0	3
Blubber, (see Oil)						
Bones of cattle and other animals, and of fish, (except whale fins) whether burnt or unburnt, or as animal charcoal, ton	0	0	6	0	0	6
Bonnets (see Hats)						
Books, being of editions printed prior to the year 1801, bound or unbound, cwt.	1	0	0	1	0	0
Printed in or since the year 1801, cwt.	5	0	0	5	0	0
In the foreign living languages, printed in or since the year 1801, cwt.	2	10	0	2	10	0
Boots, Shoes, and Calashes, viz: women's boots and calashes, dozen pairs,	0	12	0	0	12	0
If lined or trimmed with fur or other trimming,	0	15	0	0	15	0
Shoes, with cork or double soles, quilted shoes and clogs,	0	10	0	0	10	0
If trimmed or lined with fur or any other trimming,	0	12	0	0	12	0
Women's shoes of silk, satin, jean, or other stuffs, kid, morocco, or other leather,	0	9	0	0	9	0
Women's shoes, if trimmed or lined with fur or any other trimming,	0	10	0	0	10	0
Girls' boots, shoes, and calashes, not exceeding seven inches in length, to be charged with two thirds of the above duties.						
Men's Boots, doz. pairs	1	8	0	1	8	0
Shoes,	0	14	0	0	14	0
Boys' boots and shoes, not exceeding seven inches in length, to be charged with two thirds of the above duties.						
Boot Fronts, not exceeding nine inches in height,	0	3	6	0	3	6
Exceeding nine inches in height,	0	5	6	0	5	6
Boracic Acid, cwt.	0	0	6	0	0	6
Borax, Unrefined,	0	0	6	0	0	6
Refined,	0	5	0	0	5	0
Bottles of earth or stone, and empty, dozen	0	0	2	0	0	2
Ditto of glass covered with wicker, not being flint or cut glass, or of green or common glass, cwt.	0	4	0	0	4	0

And further on account of Excise duty, 7*s.*

Articles.	*Of and from For. Countries.*	*Of and from Brit. Poss.*
Bottles of glass, not otherwise enumerated or described,.....	£1 0s. 0d.	£1 0s. 0d
And further on account of Excise duty, 20*s.*		
Boxes of all sorts, except those made wholly or partly of glass, on which the proper glass duty will be levied, for every £100 val.	10 0 0	5 0 0
Brass, manufactures of,.....	15 per cent.	
Brass Powder,.....pound	0 0 6	0 0 6
Bricks and Clinkers, Dutch,.....thousand	0 10 0	0 5 0
Other sorts,.....	0 15 0	0 7 6
Brimstone,.....cwt.	0 0 6	0 0 3
Refined, in rolls,.....	0 2 0	0 1 0
in flour,.....	0 2 0	0 1 0
Bristles, rough and in the tufts, and not in any way sorted,...cwt.	0 2 6	0 2 6
In any way sorted or arranged in colors, and not entirely rough and in the tufts,.....pound	0 0 3	0 0 3
Brocade of gold or silver,.....	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
Bronze works of art,.....cwt.	1 0 0	1 0 0
Other manufactures of,.....	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Powder of,.....	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Bugles,.....pound	0 0 3	0 0 3
Bullrushes,.....ton	0 10 0	0 10 0
Bulls,.....each	1 0 0	1 10 0
Bullion and foreign coin of gold or silver, and ore of gold or silver, or of which the major part in value is gold and silver,...	Free.	Free.
Burgundy Pitch,.....cwt.	0 2 0	0 2 0
Butter,.....cwt.	1 0 0	0 5 0
Buttons,.....	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Cables (not being iron cables) tarred or untarred,.....cwt.	0 6 0	3 3 0
Not being iron cables, in actual use of a British ship, and being fit and necessary for such ship, and not or until otherwise disposed of,.....	Free.	Free.
If, and when otherwise disposed of,.....every £100 value	10 0 0	5 0 0
Calves,.....each	0 10 0	0 5 0
Cambric (see Linen)		
Camomile Flowers,.....pound	0 0 1	0 0 1
Camphor,.....cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0
Refined,.....	0 10 0	0 10 0
Candles, Spermaceti,.....pound	0 0 6	0 0 6
Stearine,.....pound	0 0 2½	0 0 2½
Tallow,.....cwt.	0 10 0	0 10 0
Wax,.....pound	0 0 4	0 0 4
Candlewick,.....cwt.	0 8 8	0 4 4
Canella Alba,.....pound	0 0 1	0 0 1
Canes, Bamboo,.....thousand	0 0 6	0 0 6
Rattans and Reed Canes, not ground,.....thousand	0 5 0	0 5 0
Walking Canes or Sticks, mounted, painted, or otherwise ornamented,.....	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
Canes or Sticks, unenumerated,.....thousand	0 5 0	0 5 0
Cantharides,.....pound	0 0 3	0 0 3
Caoutchouc,.....cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0
Capers, including the pickle,.....pound	0 0 6	0 0 3
Capsicum (see Pepper)		
Cardamoms,.....	0 0 2	0 0 2
Cards, Playing,.....dozen packs	4 0 0	4 0 0
Carriages, of all sorts,.....	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
Carmine,.....ounce	0 0 6	0 0 6
Casks, empty,.....	25 per ct.	25 per ct.
Cassava Powder,.....cwt.	0 5 0	0 1 0
Cassia Fistula,.....cwt.	0 5 0	0 5 0
Cassia Lignea,.....pound	0 0 3	0 0 1
Buds,.....pound	0 0 6	0 0 3
Castor,.....cwt.	0 2 0	0 2 0
Casts of busts, statues, and figures,.....cwt.	0 2 6	0 2 6

Articles.	*Of and from For. Countries.*	*Of and from Brit. Poss.*
Catlings,.....gross	£0 3s. 0d.	£0 3s. 0d
Cavaire,.....cwt.	0 5 0	0 5 0
Chalk, not otherwise enumerated, and unmanufactured,.....	5 per ct.	2½ per ct
Prepared or manufactured, not otherwise enumerated,.....	10 per ct.	5 per ct.
Cheese,.....cwt.	0 10 6	0 2 6
Cherries, Raw,.....	5 per ct.	5 per ct.
Dried,.....pound	0 0 6	0 0 6
Chesnuts,.....bushel	0 2 0	0 2 0
Chicory, or any other vegetable matter applicable to the uses of chicory or coffee, roasted or ground,.....pound	0 0 6	0 0 6
Raw, kiln-dried,.....cwt.	1 0 0	1 0 0
Chillies (see Pepper)		
China or Porcelain ware, plain,.....	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Gilt, painted, or ornamented,.....	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
China Root,.....pound	0 0 3	0 0 3
Chip or Willow for plaiting,.....cwt.	0 0 1	0 0 1
Chocolate,.....	0 0 6	0 0 2
Cider,.....tun	10 10 0	10 10 0
Cinnabaris Nativa,.....cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0
Cinnamon,.....pound	0 0 6	0 0 3
Citrate of Lime,.....cwt.	0 5 0	0 5 0
Citric Acid,.....pound	0 0 2	0 0 2
Citron, preserved with salt,.....	10 per ct.	10 per ct.
Civet,.....ounce	0 2 0	0 2 0
Clinkers (see Bricks)		
Clocks,.....	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
Clocks or Watches, of any metal impressed with any mark or stamp, appearing to be or to represent any legal British assay mark or stamp, or purporting, by any mark or appearance, to be of the manufacture of the United Kingdom,.....	Prohibited.	
Cloves,.....pound	0 0 6	0 0 6
Coal, Culm, Cinders,.....ton	0 1 0	0 0 6
Cobalt,.....ton	0 5 0	0 5 0
Ore,.....	1 per ct.	1 per ct.
Coculus Indicus,.....cwt.	0 7 6	0 7 6
Cochineal,.....	0 1 0	0 1 0
Dust,.....	0 1 0	0 1 0
Cocoa,.....pound	0 0 4	0 0 1
Husks and Shells,.....	0 0 1	0 0 0½
Paste and Chocolate,.....	0 0 6	0 0 2
Codilla (see Flax)		
Coffee,.....pound	0 0 8	0 0 4
Coir Rope, twine and strands,.....cwt.	0 2 6	0 1 3
Cocoa Nuts,.....12 hundred	0 0 0	0 1 0
Colocynth,.....pound	0 0 1	0 0 1
Columbo Root,.....cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0
Colts,.....	1 0 0	0 10 0
Comfits, Dry,.....pound	0 0 6	0 0 3
Confectionery (see Succades)		
Copper, Ore of, not containing more than 15 parts copper, per ton of metal,.....	3 0 0	
Containing not more than 20 ditto,.....	4 10 0	1 0 0
Containing more than 20 ditto,.....	6 0 0	
Copper, Old, fit only to be remanufactured,.....cwt.	0 7 6	0 3 6
Unwrought, viz: in bricks or pigs, rose copper, and all cast copper,.....	0 8 0	0 4 0
In part wrought, viz: bars, rods, or ingots, hamm'd or raised,	0 10 0	0 5 0
In plates and copper coin,.....	0 10 0	0 5 0
Manufactures of Copper not otherwise enumerated or described, and copper-plates engraved,.....£100 value	15 0 0	15 0 0
Copper or Brass Wire,.....	12½ per ct.	12½ per ct.
Copperas, blue, green, and white,.....ton	1 0 0	0 10 0

Articles.	*Of or from For. Countries.*			*Of or from Brit Poss.*		
Coral, in fragments,	0	0	2	0	0	1
Whole Polished, pound	0	12	0	0	0	6
Unpolished, pound	0	5	6	0	0	6
Cordage, tarred or untarred, (standing or running rigging in use excepted,) cwt.	0	6	0	0	3	0
In actual use of a British ship, and being fit and necessary for such ship, and not or until otherwise disposed of,	Free.			Free.		
If, and when otherwise disposed of, every £100 value	5	0	0	2	10	0
Cordial Waters (see Spirits)						
Cork, until 5th July, 1843, cwt.	0	8	0	0	8	0
Do. (from and after 5th July, 1843) ton	0	1	0	0	1	0
Corks (ready made) until 5th July, 1843, pound	0	7	0	0	7	0
Do. (from and after 5th July, 1843) pound	0	0	8	0	0	8
Do. squared for rounding, cwt.	0	16	0	0	16	0
Do. fishermen's, cwt.	0	2	0	0	2	0

Corn—If imported from any foreign country :—

Wheat—Whenever the average price of wheat, made up and published in the manner required by law, shall be for every quarter—

	£	*s.*	*d.*		£	*s.*	*d.*
Under 51*s.* the duty shall be for every quarter,	1	0	0	Per quarter— 62*s.* and under 63*s.*	0	10	0
51*s.* and under 52*s.*	0	19	0	63*s.* and under 64*s.*	0	9	0
52*s.* and under 55*s.*	0	18	0	64*s.* and under 65*s.*	0	8	0
55*s.* and under 56*s.*	0	17	0	65*s.* and under 66*s.*	0	7	0
56*s.* and under 57*s.*	0	16	0	66*s.* and under 69*s.*	0	6	0
57*s.* and under 58*s.*	0	15	0	69*s.* and under 70*s.*	0	5	0
58*s.* and under 59*s.*	0	14	0	70*s.* and under 71*s.*	0	4	0
59*s.* and under 60*s.*	0	13	0	71*s.* and under 72*s.*	0	3	0
60*s.* and under 61*s.*	0	12	0	72*s.* and under 73*s.*	0	2	0
61*s.* and under 62*s.*	0	11	0	73*s.* and upwards,	0	1	0

Barley—Whenever the average price of barley, made up and published in the manner required by law, shall be for every quarter—

	£	*s.*	*d.*		£	*s.*	*d.*
Under 26*s.* the duty shall be for every quarter,	0	11	0	Per quarter— 32*s.* and under 33*s.*	0	6	0
26*s.* and under 27*s.*	0	10	0	33*s.* and under 34*s.*	0	5	0
27*s.* and under 30*s.*	0	9	0	34*s.* and under 35*s.*	0	3	0
30*s.* and under 31*s.*	0	8	0	36*s.* and under 37*s.*	0	2	0
31*s.* and under 32*s.*	0	7	0	37*s.* and upwards,	0	1	0

Oats—Whenever the average price of oats, made up and published in the manner required by law, shall be for every quarter—

	£	*s.*	*d.*		£	*s.*	*d.*
Under 19*s.* the duty shall be for every quarter,	0	8	0	Per quarter— 24*s.* and under 25*s.*	0	4	0
19*s.* and under 20*s.*	0	7	0	25*s.* and under 26*s.*	0	3	0
20*s.* and under 23*s.*	0	6	0	26*s.* and under 27*s.*	0	2	0
23*s.* and under 24*s.*	0	5	0	27*s.* and upwards,	0	1	0

Rye, Peas, and Beans—Whenever the average price of rye, or of peas, or of beans, made up and published in the manner required by law, shall be for every quarter—

	£	*s.*	*d.*		£	*s.*	*d.*
Under 30*s.* the duty shall be for every quarter,	0	11	6	Per quarter— 37*s.* and under 38*s.*	0	5	6
30*s.* and under 33*s.*	0	10	6	38*s.* and under 39*s.*	0	4	6
33*s.* and under 34*s.*	0	9	6	39*s.* and under 40*s.*	0	3	6
34*s.* and under 35*s.*	0	8	6	40*s.* and under 41*s.*	0	2	6
35*s.* and under 36*s.*	0	7	6	41*s.* and under 42*s.*	0	1	6
36*s.* and under 37*s.*	0	6	6	42*s.* and upwards,	0	1	0

Wheat, Meal, and Flour—For every barrel, being one hundred and ninety-six pounds, a duty equal in amount to the duty payable on thirty-eight and a half gallons of wheat.

Oatmeal—For every quantity of one hundred and eighty-one pounds and a half, a duty equal in amount to the duty payable on a quarter of oats.

Maize or Indian Corn, Buckwheat, Bear, or Bigg—For every quarter, a duty equal in amount to the duty payable on a quarter of barley.

CORN, ETC.—*Continued.*

If the produce of and imported from any British possessions in North America, or elsewhere out of Europe.

Wheat—Whenever the average price of wheat, made up and published in the manner required by law, shall be—

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Under 55s. for every quarter, the duty shall be for every quarter,	0	5	0	Per quarter— 56s. and under 57s.	0	3	0
				57s. and under 58s.	0	2	0
55s. and under 56s.	0	4	0	58s. and upwards,	0	1	0

Barley—Whenever the average price of barley, made up and published in the manner required by the law, shall be—

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Under 28s. for every quarter, the duty shall be for every quarter,	0	2	6	Per quarter— 29s. and under 30s.	0	1	6
				30s. and under 31s.	0	1	0
28s. and under 29s.	0	2	0	31s. and upwards,	0	0	6

Oats—Whenever the average price of oats, made up and published in the manner required by law, shall be—

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Under 22s. for every quarter, the duty shall be for every quarter,	0	2	0	Per quarter— 22s. and under 23s.	0	1	6
				23s. and upwards,	0	0	6

Rye, Peas, and Beans—Whenever the average price of rye, or of peas, or of beans, made up and published, in the manner required by law, shall be—

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Under 30s. for every quarter, the duty shall be for every quarter,	0	3	0	Per quarter— 32s. and under 33s.	0	1	6
				33s. and under 34s.	0	1	0
30s. and under 31s.	0	2	6				
31s. and under 32s.	0	2	0	34s. and upwards,	0	0	6

Wheat, Meal, and Flour—For every barrel, being one hundred and ninety-six pounds, a duty equal in amount to the duty payable on thirty-eight and a half gallons of wheat.

Oatmeal—For every quantity of one hundred and eighty-one pounds and a half, a duty equal in amount to the duty payable on a quarter of oats.

Maize or Indian Corn, Buckwheat, Bear, or Bigg—For every quarter, a duty equal in amount to the duty payable on a quarter of barley.

Articles.	*Of or from For. Countries.*	*Of or from Brit. Poss.*
Corneliana,	5 per ct.	5 per ct.
Set,	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Cotton, manufactures of,	10 per ct.	5 per ct.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d
Do. Yarn, for every £100 value	10 0 0	5 0 0
Articles or manufactures of cotton, wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty,*	20 per ct.	10 per ct.
* Cotton stockings must pay this duty.		
Cows, each	0 15 0	0 7 6
Cranberries, gallon	0 0 1	0 0 1
Crayons,	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Cream of Tartar, cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0
Crystal, Rough,	5 per ct.	2½ per ct.
Crystal Beads, thousand	0 5 0	0 5 0
Cut or manufactured, except beads,	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Cubebs, pound	0 0 1	0 0 1
Cubic Nitre, cwt.	0 0 6	0 0 6
Cucumbers, Preserved,	10 per ct.	5 per ct.
Currants, cwt.	1 2 2	1 2 2
Cutch, ton	0 5 0	0 5 0
Dates, cwt.	0 10 0	0 10 0
Diamonds,	Free.	
Dice, pair	1 6 2	1 6 2
Divi Divi, ton	0 5 0	0 5 0
Down, pound	0 1 3	0 0 7½
Drawings (see Prints)		
Drugs not enumerated, cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0
Earthenware, not otherwise enumerated or described,	10 per ct.	10 per ct.
Eggs, 120	0 0 10	0 0 2½

Articles.	*Of and from Fgn. Countries.* £ s. d.	*Of and from Brit. Poss.* £ s. d.
Emeralds (see Jewels)		
Embroidery and Needle-work,	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
Enamel, pound	0 2 0	0 2 0
Essence of Spruce,	10 per ct.	10 per ct.
Do. Lemon, &c. (see Oil)		
Extracts, viz:—cardamoms, coculus indicus, Guinea grains of Paradise, liquorice, nux vomica, opium, Peruvian or Jesuit's bark, quassia, radix rhataniæ, vitriol, Guinea pepper, or not otherwise described,	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
Extract or Preparation of any article not being particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value	20 0 0	20 0 0
Or, in lieu of the above duty, at the option of the importer, lb.	0 5 0	0 5 0
Feathers for beds, in beds, or otherwise, cwt.	0 1 0	0 10 0
Ostrich, dressed, pound	1 10 0	1 10 0
Do. undressed,	0 0 1	0 0 1
Not otherwise enumerated or described, viz:—Dressed,	10 per ct.	10 per ct.
" " " " Undressed,	5 per ct.	5 per ct.
Paddy-bird, pound	0 1 0	0 1 0
Figs, cwt.	0 15 0	0 15 0
Fish, viz:—Anchovies, pound	0 0 2	
Eels, the ship's lading	13 0 0	
Lobsters,	Free.	
Turbot, cwt.	0 5 0	
Fish of foreign taking, imported from foreign places, in other than fishing vessels, viz:—Oysters, bushel	0 1 6	
Salmon, cwt.	0 10 0	
Soles and Turtle, cwt.	0 5 0	
Fresh Fish, not otherwise enumerated,	0 1 0	
Cured Fish, ditto,	0 2 0	
Fish of British taking, fresh or cured,	Free.	Free.
Fishing Nets, (see Rags)		
Flax and Tow, or codilla of hemp or flax, dress'd or und'd, cwt.	0 0 1	0 0 1
Flocks, cwt.	0 5 0	0 2 6
Flower Roots,	5 per ct.	5 per ct.
Flowers, Artificial, not made of silk,	25 per ct.	25 per ct.
Foals, each	1 0 0	0 10 0
Fossils (see Minerals)		
Frames for pictures, prints, or drawings,	10 per ct.	10 per ct.
Frankincense, Olibanum, (see Gum)		
Fruit, Raw, not otherwise enumerated,	5 per ct.	5 per ct.
Fustic, ton	0 2 0	0 1 0
Galls, cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0
Gamboge, cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0
Garnet, pound	0 5 0	0 5 0
Cut, pound	0 15 0	0 15 0
Gauze, of thread,	10 per ct.	7½ per ct.
Gelatine, cwt.	0 10 0	0 10 0
Geldings, each	1 0 0	0 10 0
Gentian, ton	0 5 0	0 5 0
Ginseng,	0 5 0	0 5 0
Ginger, cwt.	0 10 0	0 5 0
Preserved, pound	0 0 6	0 0 1
Glass, viz:—Crown Glass, or any kind of window glass not exceeding one ninth of an inch in thickness, and not being plate glass or German sheet glass, cwt.	1 10 0	1 10 0
And further on account of the excise duty,	5 3 0	5 3 0
Flint Glass and Cut do.	30 per cent.	
And on account of excise,	1 0 0	1 0 0
German sheet glass, white or colored, not exceeding one ninth of an inch in thickness, and shades,	1 10 0	1 10 0
And further on account of the excise duty,	4 4 0	4 4 0

Articles.	*Of and from Fgr. Countries.* £	s.	d.	*Of and from Brit. Poss.* £	s.	d.
All glass exceeding one ninth of an inch in thickness; all silvered, or polished glass, of whatever thickness, and plate glass, however small each pane, plate, or sheet, superficial measure, viz :—						
Not containing more than nine square feet,....the square foot	0	4	0	0	4	0
Containing more than nine square feet, and not more than fourteen square feet,....	0	5	0	0	5	0
Containing more than fourteen square feet, and not more than thirty-six square feet,....	0	6	0	0	6	0
Containing more than thirty-six square feet,....	0	7	0	0	7	0
Manufactures not otherwise enumerated or described, and old broken glass fit only to be remanufactured,.....cwt.	1	0	0	1	0	0
And further on account of excise duty,....	1	0	0	1	0	0
Painting on glass,....	5 per ct.			5 per ct.		
And further on account of excise duty,.....super. foot	0	4	0	0	4	0
Gloves of Leather, Habit Mits,.....dozen pairs	0	2	4	0	2	4
Habit Gloves,....	0	3	6	0	3	6
Men's,....	0	3	6	0	3	6
Women's, or Mits,....	0	4	6	0	4	6
Glue,.....cwt.	0	3	0	0	3	0
Clippings, or waste of any kind, fit only for glue,....	1 per ct.			1 per ct.		
Goats,.....each	0	1	0	0	0	6
Gold Leaves,.....hundred	0	3	0	0	3	0
Grain, not rated as corn or seeds, (see Barley, Beans, and Peas)						
Grains, Guinea and Paradise,.....cwt.	0	15	0	0	15	0
Granilla,.....cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Grapes,....	5 per ct.			5 per ct.		
Grass (see Straw)						
Grease,.....cwt.	0	1	8	0	0	3
Greaves, for dogs,.....cwt.	0	2	0	0	2	0
Guano,.....ton	0	1	0	0	1	0
Gum, senegal, arabic, shell lac, lac dye, copal, animi, assafœtida, ammoniacum, guaiacum, kino, tragacanth, olibanum, mastic, euphorbium, seed, and gums not enumerated,....	0	1	0	0	1	0
Gunpowder,.....cwt.	1	0	0	1	0	0
Gun Stocks, rough,.....cwt.	0	0	6	0	0	6
Gypsum,.....ton	1	11	8	0	1	3
Hair, Human,.....pound	0	1	0	0	1	0
Hair, Camels' Hair or Wool,.....pound	0	0	1	Free.		
Cow, Ox, Bull, or Elk,.....cwt.	0	0	6	0	0	3
Goats' (see Wool)						
Horse,....	0	0	6	0	0	3
Not otherwise enumerated or described,....	5 per ct.			5 per ct.		
Manufactures of hair or goats' wool, or of hair or goats' wool and any other material, and articles of such manufacture wholly or in part made up, not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with duty,.....for every £100 value	15	0	0	7	10	0
Hams and Bacon,....	0	14	0	0	3	6
Harp Strings or Lute Strings, silvered,....	20 per ct.			20 per ct.		
Hats or Bonnets, viz :—Of Chip,.....pound	0	5	0	0	5	0
Bast, Cane, or Horse-hair, not ex. 22 inches in diam...dozen	0	10	0	0	5	0
Exceeding twenty-two inches in diameter,.....dozen	0	15	0	0	15	0
Straw Hats or Bonnets,.....pound	0	8	6	0	8	6
Felt, Hair, Wool, Beaver,.....each	0	2	9	0	2	6
Silk, or Silk Shag laid upon Felt, Linen, or other materials,...	0	3	6	0	3	6
Hay,.....load	0	16	0	0	8	0
Heath, for brushes,.....cwt.	0	5	0	0	5	0
Hellebore,.....cwt.	0	3	0	0	3	0
Hemp, Dressed,.....cwt.	0	4	2	0	2	0
Rough, or Undressed, or any other vegetable substance of the nature and quality of undressed hemp, and applicable to the same purposes,.....cwt.	0	0	1	0	0	1

Articles.	*Of or from For. Countries.*			*Of or from Brit. Poss.*		
Hides, Raw and Tanned—horse, mare, gelding, buffalo, bull, cow, ox, calf, kid, swine, and hog, sea cow, elephant, and eland or large deer hides, viz: not tanned, tawed, curried, or in any way dressed dry,.....cwt	£ 0	s. 0	d. 6	£ 0	s. 0	d. 2
Ditto, Wet,.....cwt.	0	0	3	0	0	1
Whether whole, cut, rounded, or trimmed, or pieces thereof, not cut into shapes, tanned but not otherwise dressed,...lb.	0	0	2	0	0	1
Tawed, curried, or in any way dressed, not being varnished, japanned, or enamelled,.....	0	0	4	0	0	2
If varnished, japanned, or enamelled,.....	0	0	6	0	0	3
Losh Hides,.....pound	0	0	4	0	0	2
Muscovy or Russian Hides, or pieces thereof, tanned, colored, shaved, or otherwise dressed,.....	0	0	4	0	0	2
Hides, or pieces thereof, raw or undressed, not otherwise enumerated,.....for every £100 value	5	0	0	2	10	0
Hides, or pieces thereof, tanned, tawed, curried, or in any way dressed, not otherwise enumerated,.....for every £100 value	10	0	0	5	0	0
Hones,.....hundred	1	0	0	1	0	0
Honey,.....cwt.	0	10	0	0	5	0
Hoofs of Cattle,.....	1 per ct.			1 per ct.		
Hoops, Iron (see Iron)						
Wood (see Wood)						
Hogs,.....each	0	5	0	0	2	6
Hops,.....cwt.	4	10	0	4	10	0
Horns, Tips, and pieces of horns,.....ton	0	1	0	0	1	0
Horses,.....each	1	0	0	0	10	0
Horse Grease, (see Oil, Animal)						
Indigo,.....cwt.	0	2	0	1	0	0
India Rubber (see Caoutchouc)						
Inkle, Unwrought,.....pound	0	0	6	0	0	3
Wrought,.....	0	1	0	0	0	6
Ink, for Printers,.....cwt.	0	10	0	0	10	0
Iron Ore,.....ton	0	2	0	0	0	6
Pig,.....	0	5	0	0	1	0
Bars Unwrought,.....	1	0	0	0	2	6
Old Broken and Old Cast,.....	0	5	0	0	1	0
Iron and Steel Wrought, not otherwise enumerated,.....	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Bloom,.....	0	7	6	0	2	6
Chromate of,.....	0	5	0	0	2	0
Slit or Hammered into Rods, Cast Hoop,.....	1	10	0	0	15	0
Isinglass,.....cwt.	2	7	6	0	5	0
Jalap,.....pound	0	0	1	0	0	1
Japanned or Lacquered Ware,.....	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Jet,.....pound	0	0	1	0	0	1
Jewels, Emeralds, Rubies, and all other Precious Stones (except Diamonds and Pearls) set,.....	10 per ct.			10 per ct.		
Unset,.....	½ per ct.			½ per ct.		
Juice, Lemon, Lime, and Orange,.....gallon	0	0	0½	0	0	0½
Junk (see Rags)						
Kids,.....each	0	1	0	0	0	6
Lac, viz:—Stick Lac,.....cwt.	0	0	1	0	0	1
Shell Lac,.....	0	1	0	0	1	0
Lac Dye,.....	0	1	0	0	1	0
Lace (see Linen)						
Lackered Ware (see Japanned Ware)						
Lambs,.....each	0	2	0	0	1	0
Lampblack,.....cwt.	1	0	0	1	0	0
Lapis Caliminaris,.....ton	0	1	0	0	1	0
Lard,.....cwt.	0	2	0	0	0	6
Latten,.....cwt.	0	1	0	0	0	6
Shaven,.....	0	1	0	0	0	6
Wire,.....	12½ per ct.			12½ per ct.		

Articles.	*Of or from Fgn. Countries.* £	s.	d.	*Of or from Brit. Poss.* £	s.	d.
Lavender Flowers, ... pound	0	0	1	0	0	1
Lead, Ore of, ... ton	0	10	0	0	2	0
Black, Pig, and Sheet, ...	1	0	0	0	5	0
Red, ...	1	10	0	0	15	0
White, ...	2	5	0	0	2	6
Chromate of, ...	5	0	0	2	10	0
Manufactures of, ...	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Leather, cut into shapes, or any article made of leather, or any manufacture whereof leather is the most valuable part, not otherwise enumerated or described, ... £100 value	15	0	0	15	0	0
Leaves of Roses, ... pound	0	0	2	0	0	2
Leeches, ...	5 per ct.			5 per ct.		
Lemons (see Oranges)						
Lemon Peel, ... cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Juice, ... gallon	0	0	0½	0	0	0½
Lentiles, ... bushel	0	0	3	0	0	1½
Lime Juice, ... gallon	0	0	0½	0	0	0½
Linen, or Linen and Cotton, viz:—Cambrics and lawns, commonly called French lawns, the piece not exceeding 8 yards in length, and not exceeding ¾ of a yard in breadth, and so in proportion for any greater or less quantity, Plain, ... piece	0	5	0	0	5	0
Bordered Handkerchief, ...	0	5	0	0	5	0
Lawns, of any other sort not French, ...	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Lace, Thread, ... per cent	12	10	0	12	10	0
Made by the hand, commonly called cushion or pillow lace, whether of cotton, silken, or linen thread, ...	12	10	0	12	10	0
Damasks, ... square yard	0	0	10	0	0	10
Damasks Diaper, ... ditto	0	0	5	0	0	5
Plain Linens and Diaper, not otherwise enumerated or described, and whether checkered or striped with dyed yarn or not, ... per cent	15	0	0	15	0	0
Sails, ... ditto	15	0	0	15	0	0
In actual use of a British ship, and fit and necessary for such ship, and not otherwise disposed of, ...	Free.			Free.		
If, and when otherwise disposed of, ... per cent	15	0	0	15	0	0
Manufactures of Linen, or of linen mixed with cotton or with wool, not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with duty, ...	15	0	0	15	0	0
Litharge, ... ton	1	0	0	0	10	0
Liquorice Root, ... cwt.	1	0	0	0	10	0
Powder, ... cwt.	1	15	0	0	15	0
Paste, ...	1	0	0	0	10	0
Juice, ...	1	7	6	0	10	0
Logwood, ... ton	0	2	0	0	2	0
Maccaroni and Vermicelli, ... pound	0	0	1	0	0	1
Mace, ... pound	0	2	6	0	2	6
Madder, ... cwt.	0	0	6	0	0	6
Madder Root, ...	0	0	3	0	0	3
Magna Græcia ware, ...	5 per ct.			5 per ct.		
Manna, ... pound	0	0	1	0	0	1
Manganese Ore, ... ton	0	1	0	0	1	0
Manure not otherwise enumerated or charged with duty, ... ton	0	0	6	0	0	6
Manuscripts, ... pound	0	0	2	0	0	2
Maps or Charts, or parts thereof, plain or colored, ... each	0	0	1	0	0	1
Marble, Sawn, in slabs, or otherwise manufactured, ...	0	3	0	0	1	6
Marbles for children (see Toys)						
Marmalade, ...	0	0	6	0	0	1
Mares, ... each	1	0	0	0	10	0
Mats and Matting, ...	5 per ct.			2½ per ct.		
Mattresses, ...	10 per ct.					
Mead, ...	0	5	6	0	5	6
Meat, Salted or Fresh, not otherwise described, ... cwt.	0	8	0	0	2	0

Articles.	*Of and from For. Countries.*	*Of and from Brit. Poss.*
Medals of Gold or Silver,	Free.	
of other sorts,	5 per ct.	
Medlars, ...bushel	£0 1*s.* 0*d.*	£0 0*s.* 6*d*
Molasses (see Sugar)		
Mercury, Prepared,	10 per cent.	
Metal, Bell, ...ton	2 0 0	2 0 0
Leaves, except Gold, ...per 250	0 0 1	0 0 1
Millboards, ...cwt.	1 10 0	1 10 0
Minerals and Fossils, not enumerated, and specimens thereof,		
and of ores, exceeding fourteen pounds,	5 per ct.	1 per ct.
Ditto, not exceeding fourteen pounds,	Free.	
Minerals illustrative of natural history,	Free.	Free.
Mirrors pay duty as plate glass.		
Models, of cork or wood,	5 per ct.	5 per ct.
Morphia and its salts, ...pound	0 5 0	0 5 0
Moss—Lichen Islandicus, ...ton	0 5 0	0 5 0
Rock, for dyers' use,	0 5 0	0 5 0
Not enumerated, ...for every £100 value	1 0 0	1 0 0
Mother-of-Pearl shells,	5 per ct.	5 per ct.
Mules, ...each	0 2 6	0 1 3
Mum, ...barrel	2 0 0	2 0 0
Musical Instruments,	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Musk, ...ounce	0 0 6	0 0 6
Mustard Flour, ...cwt.	0 12 0	0 12 0
Myrrh, ...cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0
Needlework and Embroidery,	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
Nickle, Ore of,	4 per cent.	
Nickle, Metallic, and Oxide of, Refined,	10 per ct.	10 per ct.
Nitre, Cubic, ...cwt.	0 0 6	0 0 6
Nutmegs imported *from* British possessions until the 5th July, 1843, ...pound	0 0 0	0 2 6
Foreign, ...pound	0 3 6	0 0 0
Do. from and after July 5, 1843, ...pound	0 3 6	0 2 6
Wild in Shell,	0 0 3	0 0 3
Nuts, Pistachio, ...cwt.	0 10 0	0 10 0
Small Nuts, ...bushel	0 2 0	0 2 0
Nuts, not otherwise enumerated, except such as are commonly used for expressing oil therefrom,	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
Nuts or kernels thereof, not particularly enumerated or charged with duty, and commonly used for expressing oil therefrom, ...ton	1 0 0	0 0 6
Nux Vomica,	0 5 0	0 5 0
Oakum, ...cwt.	0 0 1	0 0 1
Ochre,	0 0 6	0 0 6
Oil, of Almonds, ...pound	0 0 2	0 0 2
Animal, Raw, not otherwise enumerated, ...cwt.	0 1 3	0 1 3
Bays, ...pound	0 0 2	0 0 2
Castor, ...cwt.	0 1 3	0 1 3
Chemical, Essential, or Perfumed, viz: Cloves, ...pound	0 4 0	0 4 0
Carraway, Lavender, Mint, Peppermint, Spike,	0 2 0	0 2 0
Cassia, Bergamot, Lemon, Otto of Roses, Thyme, and other sorts, ...pound	0 1 0	0 1 0
Cocoa Nut, ...cwt.	0 1 3	0 0 7½
Linseed, Rape, Hemp, ...tun	6 0 0	1 0 0
Olive,	2 0 0	1 0 0
Ditto, imported in a ship belonging to any of the subjects of the King of the Two Sicilies,	4 0 0	——
Palm, ...cwt.	0 0 6	0 0 6
Paran, ...tun	2 0 0	1 0 0
Rock, ...cwt.	0 6 0	0 3 0
Seed, not otherwise enumerated or described, ...tun	6 0 0	1 0 0

Articles.	*Of and from For. Countries.* £	s.	d.	*Of and from Brit. Poss.* £	s.	d.
Train, Blubber, and Spermaceti, the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea, taken and caught by the crews of British vessels, and imported direct from the fishery, or from any British possession in a British vessel,.....tun		——		0	1	0
Train, Blubber, and Head-Matter, the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea, of foreign fishing, until the 5th of July, 1843,.....tun	26	12	0			
Train and Blubber, the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea, of foreign fishing, from and after 5th July, '43, tun	6	0	0			
Spermaceti, of foreign fishing, from and after 5th July, '43, tun	15	0	0			
Walnut,.....	0	6	0	0	3	0
Or Spirit of Turpentine,.....	0	5	0	0	2	6
Not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty,.....	20 per ct.			10 per ct.		
Oil Seedcake,.....ton	0	1	0	0	1	0
Olibanum,.....cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Olives,.....gallon	0	2	0	0	2	0
Onions,.....bushel	0	0	6	0	0	3
Opium,.....pound	0	1	0	0	1	0
Orange Flower Water,.....pound	0	0	1	0	0	1
Oranges and Lemons, viz: in chests and boxes, not exceeding 5,000 cubic inches,.....	0	2	6	0	2	6
Over 5,000 cubic inches, and not exceeding 7,300,.....	0	3	9	0	3	9
Over 7,300 cubic inches, and not exceeding 14,000,.....	0	7	6	0	7	6
For every 1,000 cubic inches exceeding 14,000,.....	0	0	7½	0	0	7½
Loose,.....thousand	0	15	0	0	15	0
Entered at value, at the option of the importer,.....£100 value	75	0	0	75	0	0
Orchal,.....cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Ore not particularly charged with duty,.....	2 per ct.			½ per ct.		
Orpiment,.....cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Orris Root,.....	0	5	0	0	5	0
Orsidew,.....cwt.	0	10	0	0	10	0
Otto of Roses (see Oils, Essential, &c.)						
Oxen,.....each	1	0	0	0	10	0
Painters' Colors not particularly charged, viz: Unmanufactured,	1 per ct.			1 per ct.		
Manufactured,.....	10 per ct.			10 per ct.		
Palmetto Thatch and Plat,.....cwt.	0	0	0	0	0	1
Manufactured ditto,.....	0	0	0	5 per ct.		
Paper, viz:—Brown, made of old rope or cordage only, without separating or extracting the pitch or tar therefrom, and without any mixture of other materials therewith,.....pound	0	0	3	0	0	3
Printed, Painted, or Stained Paper, or Paper Hangings, or Flock Paper,.....square yard	0	1	0	0	1	0
Waste, unless printed on in the English language, or Paper of any other sort not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty,.....pound	0	0	4½	0	0	4½
Printed on in the English language,.....	Prohibited.					
Parchment,.....dozen sheets	0	6	0	0	6	0
Pasteboards,.....cwt.	1	10	0	1	10	0
Pears, Raw,.....bushel	0	0	6	0	0	3
Dried,.....	0	2	0	0	2	0
Peel of Pomegranates, Lemon, and Orange,.....cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Pencils,.....	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Of Slate,.....	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Pens,.....	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Pepper, of all sorts,.....pound	0	0	6	0	0	6
Percussion Caps,.....thousand	0	0	4	0	0	4
Perfumery, not otherwise charged,.....	20 per ct.			20 per ct.		
Perry,.....tun	10	10	0	10	10	0
Phosphorous,.....	10 per ct.			10 per ct.		
Pewter, Manufactures of,.....	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		

Articles.	*Of and from For. Countries.* £	s.	d.	*Of and from Brit. Poss.* £	s.	d.
Pickles, of all sorts, including the vinegar, and not otherwise enumerated, ...gallon	0	1	6	0	0	9
Preserved in Salt, ...	0	0	6	0	0	3
Pictures, ...each	0	1	0	0	1	0
And further, ...the square foot	0	1	0	0	1	0
Above 200 square feet, ...	10	0	0	10	0	0
Pigs, Sucking, ...each	0	2	0	0	1	0
Pimento, ...cwt.	0	5	0	0	5	0
Pink Root, ...pound	0	0	1	0	0	1
Pistachio Nuts, ...cwt.	0	10	0	0	10	0
Pitch, ...	0	0	6	0	0	1
Burgundy, ...cwt.	0	0	2	0	0	2
Plantains, ...cwt.	0	0	2	0	0	2
Plaster of Paris, ...ton	1	0	0	1	0	0
Plate of Gold and Plate of Silver Gilt or Ungilt, ... Together with the stamp duty.	10 per ct.			10 per ct.		
Plate, Battered, ...	Free.					
Wire, Gilt or Plated, ...	12½ per ct.			12½ per ct.		
Ditto, Silver, ...						
Platina, and Ore of, ...	½ per cent.					
Pomatum, ...	20 per ct.			20 per ct.		
Pomegranates, ...thousand	0	5	0	0	5	0
Porcelain (see China)						
Pork, Salted, (not Hams) from and after October 10, 1842, cwt.	0	8	0	0	2	0
Fresh, ...	0	8	0	0	2	0
Potatoes, ...cwt.	0	0	2	0	0	1
Pots, Melting Pots for Goldsmiths, ...hundred	0	3	2	0	3	2
Of Stone, ...	20 per ct.			20 per ct.		
Poultry, ...	5 per ct.			2½ per ct.		
Powder, Hair-Powder, ...cwt.	1	0	0	1	0	0
Perfumed, ...cwt.	1	0	0	1	0	0
Not otherwise enumerated or described, that will serve the same purpose as starch, ...cwt.	0	10	0	0	10	0
Plants, Shrubs, and Trees alive, ...	Free.					
Platting, or other manufactures to be used in or proper for making hats or bonnets, viz :—Of Bast, Cane, or Horse-Hair, pound	0	10	0	0	10	0
Of Chip, ...pound	0	2	6	0	2	6
Of Straw, ...pound	0	7	6	0	7	6
Plums, commonly called French Plums and Prunelloes, ...cwt.	1	0	0	1	0	0
Prints and Drawings, plain or colored, single, ...each	0	0	1	0	0	1
Bound or Sewn, ...dozen	0	0	3	0	0	3
Prunes, ...	0	7	0	0	7	0
Puddings and Sausages, ...pound	0	0	3	0	0	1
Quassia, ...cwt.	0	10	0	0	10	0
Quicksilver, ...pound	0	0	1	0	0	1
Quills, Goose, ...thousand	0	0	6	0	0	3
Swan, ...	0	3	0	0	1	6
Quinces, ...	0	1	0	0	1	0
Quinine, ...ounce	0	0	6	0	0	6
Radix, viz :—Contrayervæ, Rhatanæ, and Senekæ, ...pound	0	0	1	0	0	1
Serpentariæ or Snake Root, ...	0	0	2	0	0	2
Ipecacuanhæ, ...	0	1	0	0	1	0
Enulæ, Campanæ, and Eringii, ...cwt.	0	2	0	0	2	0
Rags, Old Woollen, ...ton	0	0	6	0	0	6
Old, Old Ropes, or Junk, or Old Fishing Nets, fit only for making paper or pasteboard, ...	0	0	6	0	0	6
Pulp of Rags, ...ton	0	5	0	0	5	0
Raisins, ...cwt.	0	15	0	0	7	6
Rhubarb, ...pound	0	0	3	0	0	3
Rice, not rough nor in the husk, ...cwt.	0	6	0	0	0	6
Rice, rough and in the husk, ...quarter	0	7	0	0	0	1
Ropes (see Cordage)						

Articles.		*Of and from For. Countries.*			*Of and from Brit. Poss.*		
Rosin,	cwt.	0	2	0	0	1	0
Rubies (see Jewels)							
Saccharum Saturni,	cwt.	0	10	0	0	10	0
Safflower,	cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Saffron,	pound	0	1	0	0	1	0
Sago,	cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Sal Limonum,	pound	0	1	0	0	1	0
Sal Prunella,		0	1	0	0	1	0
Sal Ammoniac,	cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Salep,	cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Salt,		Free.					
Saltpetre,	cwt.	0	0	6	0	0	6
Sanguis Dragonis,	cwt.	0	4	0	0	4	0
Sarsaparilla,	pound	0	0	1	0	0	1
Sassafras,	cwt.	0	0	6	0	0	6
Sausages and Puddings,	pound	0	0	3	0	0	1
Scaleboards,	cwt.	1	10	0	1	10	0
Scammony,	pound	0	0	6	0	0	6
Sealing Wax,		15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Seed (Oil) Cake,	ton	0	1	0	0	1	0
Seeds, Acorn,	bushel	0	1	0	0	0	6
Mustard,	bushel	0	1	3	0	0	6
Aniseed, Coriander, Cummin, Fennugreek, Millet, Trefoil, Worm,	cwt.	0	5	0	0	2	6
Carraway, Carrot, Clover, Forest, Parsley, Quince, shrub or tree,	cwt.	0	10	0	0	5	0
Canary,	bushel	0	4	0	0	2	0
Grass, of all sorts, not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with duty,	cwt.	0	5	0	0	2	6
Leek,	cwt.	1	0	0	0	10	0
Lucerne and Lupine,	cwt.	0	5	0	0	5	0
Cole, Flax, Hemp, Linseed, Rape, and Sesamum,	quarter	0	0	1	0	0	1
Lettuce,	quarter	0	1	0	0	1	0
Onion, until the 5th July, 1843,	pound	0	1	6	0	1	6
Ditto, from and after the 5th July, 1843,	cwt.	1	0	0	0	10	0
Poppy and Maw,	quarter	0	1	0	0	0	0
Tares,	quarter	0	5	0	0	2	6
All other seeds not particularly enumerated or described, or otherwise charged with duty, commonly used for expressing oil therefrom,	quarter	0	0	1	0	0	1
All other seeds not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty,		10 per ct.			5 per ct.		
Garden, not particularly enumerated or described, or otherwise charged with duty,	pound	0	0	1	0	0	1
Segars (see Tobacco)							
Senna,		0	0	1	0	0	1
Sheep,	each	0	3	0	0	1	6
Ships, to be broken up, with their tackle, apparel, and furniture, (except sails) viz :—foreign ships or vessels,	£100 value	25	0	0	25	0	0
Foreign Ships broken up,		10	0	0	10	0	0
British Ships or Vessels entitled to be registered as such, and not having been built in the United Kingdom,		Free.					
Shumac,	ton	0	1	0	0	1	0
Silk, viz :—Knubs or Husks of Silk and Waste Silk,	cwt.	0	1	0	0	0	6
Raw,	pound	0	1	0	0	0	6
Thrown, not dyed, viz :—Singles,		0	1	0	0	0	6
Tram,		0	1	0	0	0	6
Organzine and Crape,		0	1	0	0	0	6
Thrown, dyed, viz :—Singles, or Tram,		0	2	0	0	1	0
Organzine or Crape,		0	2	0	0	1	0
Manufactures of Silk, or of silk mixed with any other material, the produce of Europe, viz :—							

Articles.	*Of and from Fgn. Countries.* £ s. d.	*Of and from Brit. Poss.* £ s. d.
Silk, or Satin, Plain,.....pound	£0 11 0	
or, at the option of the officers of the customs, £100 value	25 0 0	
Silk, Figured or Brocaded,.....pound	0 15 0	
or, at the option of the officers of the customs, £100 value	30 0 0	
Gauze, Plain,.....	0 17 0	
or, at the option of the officers of the customs, £100 value	30 0 0	
Gauze, Striped, Figured, or Brocaded,.....	1 7 6	
or, at the option of the officers of the customs, £100 value	30 0 0	
Crape, Plain,.....	0 16 0	
or, at the option of the officers of the customs, £100 value	30 0 0	
Crape, Figured,.....	18 0 0	
or, at the option of the officers of the customs, £100 value	30 0 0	
Velvet, Plain,.....pound	1 2 0	
or, at the option of the officers of the customs,.....per cent	30 0 0	
——— Figured,.....pound	1 7 6	
or, at the option of the officers of the customs,.....per cent	30 0 0	
Ribbons, Embossed or Figured with Velvet,.....	0 17 0	
or, at the option of the officers of the customs,.....per cent	30 0 0	
——— And further, if mixed with gold, silver, or other metal, in addition to the above rates, when duty is not charged according to value,.....pound	0 10 0	
Fancy Silk Net or Tricot,.....pound	1 4 0	
Plain Silk Lace, or Net called Tulle,.....square yard	0 1 4	
Manufactures of Silk, mixed with any other material, not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with duty,.....	30 per ct.	5 per ct.
Millinery of Silk, or of which the greater part of the material is of Silk, viz:—Turbans or Caps,.....each	0 15 0	0 15 0
Hats and Bonnets,.....	1 5 0	1 5 0
Dresses,.....	2 10 0	2 10 0
or, at the option of the officers of the customs,.....	40 per ct.	40 per ct.
Manufactures of Silk, or of silk and other materials, or articles of the same, wholly or in part made up, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty,.....	30 per ct.	30 per ct.
Silkworm Gut,.....	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
Skins, Furs, Pelts, and Tails, viz:—		
Badger, Undressed,.....dozen skins	0 1 6	0 0 9
Bear, ditto,.....skin	0 3 0	0 2 0
Skins, Beaver, Undressed,.....skin	0 0 8	0 0 2
Cat, Undressed,.....dozen skins	0 1 0	0 0 6
Chinchilla, ditto,.....ditto	0 2 0	0 1 0
Coney,.....hundred	0 0 6	0 0 3
Deer Skins, Undressed,.....skin	0 0 1	0 0 0½
Indian, Half-dressed,.....	0 0 2	0 0 1
Tanned, Tawed, or any way Dressed,.....	0 0 6	0 0 3
Dog Skins, in the hair, not Tanned, Tawed, or any way Dressed,.....dozen	0 0 2	0 0 1
Dog-fish, Undressed,.....ditto	0 1 0	0 0 1
Elk Skins, Undressed,.....skin	0 0 6	0 0 3
Ermine, Undressed,.....dozen	0 0 6	0 0 3
Ditto, Dressed,.....dozen	0 2 0	0 1 0
Fisher, Undressed,.....dozen	0 4 0	0 2 0
Fitch, Undressed,.....dozen	0 1 0	0 0 6
Fox, Undressed,.....skin	0 0 6	0 0 3
Ditto, Tails, Undressed,.....each	0 0 2	0 0 1
Goat Skins, Raw or Undressed,.....dozen	0 0 3	0 0 2
Ditto, Tanned, Tawed, or any way Dressed,.....dozen	0 5 0	0 2 6
Goose, Undressed,.....dozen	0 1 0	0 0 6
Hare, Undressed,.....hundred	0 0 6	0 0 3
Husse, ditto,.....dozen	0 3 0	0 1 6
Kangaroo, ditto,.....dozen	0 0 2	0 0 1
Kid Skins, in the hair, Undressed,.....hundred	0 0 4	0 0 2
Ditto, Dressed,.....hundred	0 5 0	0 2 6

Articles.	*Of and from Fgn. Countries.*			*Of and from Brit. Poss.*		
Kid Skins, Dyed or Colored,.....hundred	£0	10*s.*	0*d.*	£0	5*s.*	0*d*
Kolinski, Undressed,.....dozen	0	1	0	0	0	6
Lamb Skins, Undressed, in wool,.....hundred	0	0	4	0	0	2
Ditto, Tanned, or Tawed,.....	0	5	0	0	2	6
Ditto, Dyed or Colored,.....	0	10	0	0	5	0
Ditto, Dressed in Oil,.....	2	0	0	1	0	0
Leopard, Undressed,.....skin	0	1	6	0	0	9
Lion, ditto,.....	0	0	6	0	0	3
Lynx, ditto,.....	0	0	6	0	0	3
Martin, ditto,.....	0	0	4	0	0	2
Tails, Undressed,.....hundred	0	2	6	0	1	3
Mink, Undressed,.....dozen	0	1	0	0	0	6
Dressed,.....skin	0	0	6	0	0	3
Mole, Undressed,.....hundred	0	3	0	0	1	6
Musquash, ditto,.....hundred	0	1	0	0	0	6
Nutria, ditto,.....hundred	0	1	0	0	0	6
Otter,.....skin	0	1	0	0	0	6
Ounce,.....	0	0	2	0	0	1
Panther,.....	0	0	2	0	0	1
Pelts, all sorts, Undressed,.....dozen	0	1	0	0	0	6
Tanned, Tawed, or any way Dressed,.....	0	5	0	0	2	6
Racoon,.....dozen	0	1	6	0	0	9
Sable, Undressed,.....skin	0	2	0	0	1	0
Tails or Tips, Undressed,.....dozen	0	1	6	0	0	9
Seal, in the hair, not Tanned, Tawed, or any way Dressed, sk.	0	0	4	0	0	4
Do. of British taking, imported direct from the fishery, or a British possession,.....dozen	0	0	0	0	0	1
Sheep, Undressed, in the wool,.....dozen	0	0	6	0	0	3
Do. Tanned or Tawed,.....hundred	0	12	0	0	6	0
Do. Dressed in Oil,.....	1	0	0	0	10	0
Squirrel or Calabar, Undressed,.....hundred	0	3	0	0	1	6
Do. Tawed,.....	0	5	0	0	2	6
Do. Tails, Undressed, ...	5 per ct.			2½ per ct.		
Swan, Undressed,.....skin	0	0	3	0	0	2
Tiger, ...	0	1	6	0	0	9
Weazel,.....dozen	0	0	3	0	0	2
Wolf, Undressed,.....dozen	0	2	0	0	1	0
Tawed,.....skin	0	5	0	0	2	6
Wolverings, Undressed,.....	0	0	3	0	0	2
Skins and Furs, or pieces of skins and furs, raw or undressed, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty,.....for every £100 value	5	0	0	2	10	0
Skins and Furs, or pieces of skins and furs, tanned, curried, or in any way dressed, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty,.....£100 value	10	0	0	5	0	0
Articles manufactured of skin, or furs,...for every £100 value	20 per ct.			10 per ct.		
Smalts,.....pound	0	0	2	0	0	2
Snuff (see Tobacco)						
Soap, Hard,.....cwt.	1	10	0	1	0	0
Soft,.....	1	0	0	0	15	0
Naples,.....	2	16	0	2	16	0
Spa Ware,.....	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Spelter or Zinc, viz:—Crude in Cakes, and not Rolled or otherwise manufactured,.....ton	0	1	0	0	1	0
Rolled, but not otherwise manufactured,.....	2	10	0	2	10	0
Manufactures of,.....	10 per ct.					
Spermaceti, Fine,.....	25 per ct.			25 per ct.		
Spirits, or Strong Waters, of all sorts, viz:—For every gallon of such spirits or strong waters of any strength, not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater or less strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon, viz:—						

Articles.	*Of and from For. Countries.* £	s.	d.	*Of and from Brit. Poss.* £	s.	d.
Being Spirits or Strong Waters, not the produce of any British possessions, and not being sweetened spirits, or spirits mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by such hydrometer,.....gallon	1	2	6	——		
Spirits or Strong Waters, the produce of any British possession in America, not being sweetened spirits or spirits so mixed, as aforesaid,.....	0	0	0	0	9	0
Rum, the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, not being sweetened spirits, or spirits so mixed as aforesaid, in regard to which the conditions of the Act 4 Vic. c. 8, have or shall have been fulfilled,.....	0	0	0	0	9	0
Rum Shrub, however sweetened, the produce of and imported from such possessions, in regard to which the conditions of the Act 4 Vic. c. 8, have or shall have been fulfilled, or the produce of and imported from any British possession in America,.....	0	0	0	0	9	0
Spirits or Strong Waters, the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, except rum, in regard to which the conditions of the Act 4 Vic. c. 8, have or shall have been fulfilled, not being sweetened spirits, or spirits so mixed as aforesaid,.....	0	0	0	0	15	0
Spirits, Cordials, or Strong Waters, not being the produce of any British possession in America, nor of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, in regard to which the conditions of the Act 4 Vic. c. 8, have or shall have been fulfilled, sweetened, or mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by Sykes' hydrometer; and perfumed spirits to be used as perfumery only,.....gallon	1	10	0	1	10	0
Cordials, or Strong Waters, (except Rum Shrub,) being the produce of any British possession in America, or of any British possession qualified as aforesaid, sweetened or mixed with any article as aforesaid,.....gallon	0	0	0	1	0	0
Liqueurs, the produce of, and imported from British possessions in America, or of and from any British possession, qualified as aforesaid, not being of greater strength than the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer,.....	0	0	0	0	9	0
Being of greater strength by Sykes' hydrometer, except Rum Shrub,.....	——			0	13	6
Sponge,.....pound	0	0	6	0	0	1
Spruce,.....barrel	1	0	0	1	0	0
Essence of Spruce, not otherwise described,.....	10 per ct.					
Squills, Dried,.....cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Not Dried,.....	0	0	6	0	0	6
Starch,.....cwt.	0	10	0	0	5	0
Gum of, Torrified or Calcined, commonly called British Gum,.....cwt.	0	15	0	0	15	0
Stavesacre,.....cwt.	0	4	0	0	4	0
Steel, Manufactures of,.....	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Ditto, Unwrought,.....	15 per ct.					
Ditto, ditto, of or from a British possession,.....ton	——			0	1	0
Sticks (see Canes)						
Stone in Lumps, not in any manner hewn, slate and marble in rough blocks and slabs, lime stone, flint stones, felspar and stones for potters' use, pebble stones, stones to be used for the purpose of lithography,.....	Free.					
Stone in Blocks, shaped or rough scalped,.....ton	0	2	0	0	0	6
Stone and Slate, hewn,.....ton	0	10	0	0	1	0
Marble, sawn in slabs or otherwise manufactured,.....cwt.	0	3	0	0	1	6
Sticklac,.....cwt.	0	0	1	0	0	1
Straw or Grass, for platting,.....cwt.	0	0	1	0	0	1

Articles.	*Of and from For. Countries.* £	s.	d.	*Of and from Brit. Poss* £	s.	d.
Succades and Confectionery, including all fruits and vegetables preserved in sugar,.....pound	0	0	6	0	0	1
Sugar and Molasses, until 5th July, 1843, viz:—Brown, or Muscovado, or Clayed Sugar, not being refined,.....cwt.	3	3	0	——		
The growth of any B.P. in America, and imported from thence,.....cwt.	——			1	4	0
The growth of any B.P. within the limits of the East India Company's charter, into which the importation of foreign sugar may be by this Act prohibited, and imported from thence,.....cwt.	——			1	4	0
The growth of any other B.P. within those limits, and imported from thence,.....	——			1	12	0
Molasses,.....cwt.	1	3	9			
The produce of, and imported from any B.P.....	——			0	9	0
Refined,.....cwt.	8	8	0	8	8	0
Candy, Brown,.....cwt.	5	12	0	5	12	0
White,.....cwt.	8	8	0	8	8	0
Maple, if accompanied with a certificate of its being the produce of a B.P.....cwt.	——			1	4	0
If not accompanied by such certificate, (C.O. 2d February, 1833,).....cwt.	3	3	0	——		
Canadian, Maple Sugar, imported from Canada, admitted to entry as the produce of a British plantation, provided it shall be certified by the proper officers of the customs, in the certificate of clearance, that such sugar is the produce of Canada, C.O. 15th March, 1836.						
Highly Crystallized, called "Patent Sugar," chiefly from Demerara, to pay (C.O. 20th June, 1838,).....cwt.	8	8	0	8	8	0
Sulphur Impressions,.....	5 per ct.			5 per ct.		
Swine,.....each	0	5	0	0	2	6
Tails (see Skins)						
Tallow,.....cwt.	0	3	2	0	0	3
Tamarinds,.....pound	0	0	3	0	0	1
Tapioca,.....cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Talc,.....cwt.	0	10	0	0	2	6
Tar, per last, containing 12 barrels, each barrel not exceeding 31½ gallons,.....	0	2	6	0	0	6
Barbadoes,.....cwt.	0	2	6	0	2	6
Tares (Seeds)						
Tarras,.....bushel	0	1	3	0	1	3
Tartaric Acid,.....pound	0	0	1	0	0	1
Tea,.....	0	2	1	0	2	1
Teasles,.....thousand	0	0	3	0	0	3
Teeth—Elephants', Sea-cow, Sea-horse, or Sea-Morse,.....cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Telescopes,.....	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Terra Umbra,.....	0	4	0	0	4	0
Sienna,.....ton	0	10	0	0	10	0
Japonica and Verde,.....ton	0	5	0	0	5	0
Thread, not otherwise enumerated or described,.....per cent	10	0	0	5	0	0
Tiles,.....	10 per ct.			10 per ct.		
Tincal,.....ton	0	1	0	0	0	6
Tin Ore, and Regulus of,.....ton	2	10	0	0	10	0
In blocks, ingots, bars, or slabs,.....cwt.	0	6	0	0	3	0
Foil,.....pound	0	0	6	0	0	6
Manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated,.....	15 per ct.			15 per ct.		
Tobacco, Unmanufactured,.....	0	3	0	0	3	0
Snuff,.....	0	6	0	0	6	0
Manufactured, or Segars,.....	0	9	0	0	9	0
Stalks and Flour of Tobacco,.....	Prohibited.					

[Manufactured in the United Kingdom, at or within two miles of any port into which tobacco may be imported, made into shag, roll, or carrot tobacco, drawback upon exportation or shipment as stores, the pound, 2*s.* 7½*d.*]

Articles.	*Of or from For. Countries.*	*Of and from Brit. Poss.*
Tobacco Pipes of Clay,	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Tongues, ... cwt.	£0 10*s.* 0*d.*	£0 2*s.* 6*d*
Tornsal, ... cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0
Tortoise and Turtle Shell, Unmanufactured, ... pound	0 1 0	0 0 1
Toys, excepting toy and hand-mirrors, on which the plate glass duty will be levied,	10 per ct.	10 per ct.
Truffles, ... pound	0 1 0	0 1 0
Turmeric, ... ton	0 5 0	0 0 1
Turnery, not otherwise described,	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Turpentine, viz :—Not being of greater value than 9*s.* per cwt.	0 0 1	0 0 1
From 9*s.* to 15*s.* per cwt.	0 1 0	0 0 3
Above 15*s.* per cwt.	0 5 0	0 2 6
Of Venice, Scio, or Cyprus, ... pound	0 0 10	0 0 10
Twine, ... cwt.	0 10 0	0 5 0
Valonea, ... ton	0 5 0	0 5 0
Vanilloes, ... pound	0 5 0	0 5 0
Varnish, not otherwise described,	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Vases, Ancient, not of stone or marble,	1 per ct.	1 per ct.
Vellum, ... skin	0 1 0	0 1 0
Vegetables, not enumerated or described,	5 per ct.	2½ per ct.
Verdigris, ... pound	0 0 1	0 0 1
Vermicelli and Maccaroni, ... pound	0 0 1	0 0 1
Verjuice, ... tun	10 0 0	10 0 0
Vermilion, ... pound	0 0 3	0 0 3
Vinegar, ... tun	18 18 0	18 18 0
Wafers, ... pound	0 0 3	0 0 3
Walnuts, ... bushel	0 2 0	0 2 0
Washing Balls, ... pound	0 0 6	0 0 6
Watches of Gold, Silver, or other metals,	10 per ct.	10 per ct.
Water, viz :—Mineral Water, ... gallon	0 0 1	0 0 1
Water, Cologne, (30 not containing more than 1 gallon) flask	0 1 0	0 1 0
Wax, Bees', ... cwt.	0 2 0	0 1 0
Do. do. in any degree bleached,	1 0 0	0 10 0
Do. Myrtle do.	0 2 0	0 1 0
Do. Sealing Wax,	15 per ct.	15 per ct.
Weld, ... ton	0 5 0	0 5 0
Whalefins, British taking, and imported direct from the fishery, or from any British possession in a British ship,	0 0 0	1 0 0
Otherwise taken, from and after the 5th July, 1842, until the 5th July, 1843, ... ton	95 0 0	——
Otherwise taken, from and after the 5th July, 1843, ... cwt.	20 per ct.	20 per ct.
Whipcord, ... pound	0 0 6	0 0 6
Wine, viz :—The produce of the Cape of Good Hope, or the territories or dependencies thereof, and imported directly from thence, ... gallon	——	0 2 9
French,	0 5 6	
Canary,	0 5 6	
Madeira,	0 5 6	
Portugal,	0 5 6	
Rhenish,	0 5 6	
Spanish,	0 5 6	
Other Sorts,	0 5 6	
[The full duties on wine are drawn back upon re-exportation or shipment as stores.]		
Lees, subject to the same duty as wine, but no drawback is allowed on the lees of wine exported.		
Woad, ... ton	0 5 0	0 5 0
Wood and Timber—		
Timber or Wood—Not being deals, battens, boards, staves, handspikes, oars, lathwood, or other timber or wood, sawn, split or otherwise dressed, except hewn, and not being timber or wood otherwise charged with duty, from and after the 10th October, 1843, ... the load of 50 cubic feet	1 10 0	0 1 0

Articles.	*Of or from For. Countries.*			*Of and from Brit. Poss.*		
Timber or Wood—From and after the 10th October, 1843,....	1	5	0	0	1	0
——Deals, battens, boards, or other timber or wood, sawn or split, and not otherwise charged with duty, from and after the 10th October, 1842, until the 10th October, 1843, the load of 50 cubic feet,	1	18	0	0	2	0
Ditto, from and after the 10th October, 1843,.....	1	12	0	0	2	0

Or, in lieu of the duties hereinbefore imposed upon wood by the load, according to the cubic content, the importer may have the option, at the time of passing the first entry, of entering battens, batten-ends, boards, deals, deal-ends, and plank, by tale, if of, or from, foreign countries, according to the following dimensions, viz:—

	From and After Oct. 10, 1842. *Not above 1¼ inch in thickness.*			*Above 1¼ inch, and not above 2¼.*		
Battens and Batten-ends, not above 7 inches in width.	£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Not above 6 feet in length,.....the 120	1	16	7	3	13	2
Above 6 and not above 9 feet in length,.....the 120	2	14	10	5	9	9
Above 9 and not above 12,.....	3	13	2	7	6	4
Above 12 and not above 15,.....	4	11	5	19	2	10
Above 15 and not above 18,.....	5	9	9	10	19	6
Above 18 and not above 21,.....	6	8	0	2	16	0
Boards, Deals, Deal-ends, and Plank, not above 9½ inches in width.						
	Not above 1¼ inch in thickness.			*Above 1¼ inch, and not above 3¼.*		
Not above 6 feet in length,.....the 120	2	18	8	5	17	4
Above 6 and not above 9,.....	4	8	0	8	16	0
Above 9 and not above 12,.....	5	17	4	11	14	8
Above 12 and not above 15,.....	7	6	8	14	13	4
Above 15 and not above 18,.....	8	16	0	17	12	0
Above 18 and not above 21,.....	10	5	4	20	10	8
Not above 6 feet in length. Above 9½ inches, and not above 11½ in width,.....the 120	3	11	0	7	2	0
Above 6 and not above 9,.....	5	6	6	10	13	0
Above 9 and not above 12,.....	7	2	0	14	4	0
Above 12 and not above 15,.....	8	17	6	17	15	0
Above 15 and not above 18,.....	10	13	0	21	6	0
Above 18 and not above 21,.....	12	8	6	24	17	0
	From and After Oct. 10, 1843 *Not above 1¼ inch in thickness.*			*Above 1¼ inch, and not above 2¼*		
Battens and Batten-ends, not above 7 inches in width.	£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Not above 6 feet in length,.....the 120	1	10	10	3	1	7
Above 6 and not above 9 feet in length,.....the 120	2	6	2	4	12	5
Above 9 and not above 12,.....	3	1	7	6	3	2
Above 12 and not above 15,.....	3	17	0	7	14	0
Above 15 and not above 18,.....	4	12	5	9	4	10
Above 18 and not above 21,.....	5	7	9	10	15	7
Boards, Deals, Deal-ends, and Plank, not above 9½ inches in width.						
	Not above 1¼ inch in thickness.			*Above 1¼ inch, and not above 3¼*		
Not above 6 feet in length,.....the 120	2	9	5	4	18	10
Above 6 and not above 9,.....	3	14	1	7	8	3
Above 9 and not above 12,.....	4	18	10	9	17	8
Above 12 and not above 15,.....	6	3	6	12	7	1
Above 15 and not above 18,.....	7	8	3	14	16	6
Above 18 and not above 21,.....	8	12	11	17	5	11
Not above 6 feet in length. Above 9½ inches and not above 11½ in width,.....the 120	2	19	10	5	19	7
Above 6 and not above 9,.....	4	6	8	8	19	5
Above 9 and not above 12,.....	5	19	7	11	19	2
Above 12 and not above 15,.....	7	9	6	14	19	6
Above 15 and not above 18,.....	8	19	5	17	18	9
Above 18 and not above 21,.....	10	9	4	20	18	7

Articles.	*Of or from For. Countries.*			*Of and from Brit Poss.*		
Staves,.....load of 50 cubic feet	£1	8s.	0d.	£0	2s.	0d
Birch, Hewn, not exceeding 3 feet in length, nor exceeding 8 inches square, imported for the sole purpose of making herring barrels for the use of the fisheries, load of 50 c. feet	0	1	0	0	1	0
Fire Wood,.....per fathom, 216 feet	0	10	0	Free.		
Handspikes, not exceeding 7 feet in length,.....the 120	1	0	0	0	0	6
Exceeding 7 feet,.....the 120	2	0	0	0	1	0
Hoops, not exceeding 7½ feet in length,.....thousand	0	2	0	0	0	4
Not exceeding 9 feet in length,.....thousand	0	3	0	0	0	6
Exceeding 9 feet in length,.....thousand	0	5	0	0	1	0
Knees under 5 inches square,.....the 120	0	10	0	0	0	3
5 inch and under 8 inch,.....	2	0	0	0	1	0
Lath Wood,.....per fathom, 216 cubic feet	2	0	0	0	1	0
Oars,.....the 120	7	10	0	0	3	9
Spars or Poles, under 22 feet in length, and under 4 inches in diameter,.....the 120	1	0	0	0	0	6
22 feet in length, and upwards, and under 4 inches in diameter,.....the 120	2	0	0	0	1	0
All lengths, 4 inches and under 6 inches in diameter,.....	4	0	0	0	2	0
Spokes for wheels, not exceeding 2 feet in length,...thousand	2	0	0	0	1	0
Exceeding 2 feet in length,.....	4	0	0	0	2	0
Teak,.....load	0	10	0	0	1	0
Billet or Brushwood used for stowage,.....£100 value	5	0	0	0	5	0
Wood Planed, or otherwise dressed or prepared for use, and not particularly enumerated, nor otherwise charged with duty, from and after the 10th Oct. 1842, until 10th Oct. '43,	9*d.* per cubic ft. Further, 10 per et.			5 per et.		
Ditto, from and after the 10th October, 1843, 7½*d.* per ft., and	10 per et.			5 per et.		
Woods—Amaboyna, Mahogany, Rosewood, and Blackwood, ton	1	0	0	0	5	0
Mahogany and Rosewood, imported from the Bay of Honduras, or the Musquito shore,.....ton	0	5	0	0	5	0
Cedar, Ebony, King, Olive Wood, and Satin,.....	0	10	0	0	2	6
Lignumvitæ,.....	0	5	0	0	2	6
Brazilletto,.....	0	2	0	0	2	0
Boxwood,.....	0	10	0	0	2	6
Beef, Speckled, Sweet, Santa Maria, and Zebra Wood,.....	0	5	0	0	2	6
Brazil Wood,.....	0	2	0	0	2	0
Tulip Wood,.....	0	10	0	0	2	6
Bar, Cam, Log, Nicaragua, Red, or Guinea, Sapan, and Saunders Red,.....ton	0	2	0	0	2	0
Yellow Saunders,.....	0	5	0	0	2	6
Walnut,.....ton	0	5	0	0	1	0
Wool, Alpaca, and the Llama tribe,.....cwt.	0	2	6	0	2	0
Wool, Beaver,.....pound	0	0	6	0	0	6
Cut and Combed ditto,.....	0	1	0	0	0	3
Coney,.....	0	0	1	0	0	6
Cotton Wool, or Waste of Cotton Wool,.....cwt.	0	2	11	0	0	1
Goats' Wool or Hair,.....	0	2	0	Free.		
Hares',.....pound	0	0	1	Free.		
Sheep or Lambs, not being of the value of 1*s.* the lb. thereof,	0	0	0½	Free.		
Ditto, being of the value of 1*s.* the lb., or upwards,.....	0	0	1	Free.		
Woollens—Manufactures of Wool, not being goats' wool, or of wool mixed with cotton, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty,.....	15 per et.			5 per et.		
Articles of manufactures of wool, not goats' wool, or wool mixed with cotton, wholly or part made up, not otherwise charged with duty,.....	20 per et.			10 per et.		
Yarns,—Cable Yarns,.....cwt.	0	6	0	0	3	0
Raw Linen,.....cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0
Worsted,.....pound	0	0	6	0	0	6
Camel or Mohair,.....pound	0	0	8	0	0	1
Zaffre,.....cwt.	0	1	0	0	0	1

BRITISH TARIFF, ETC.—*Continued.*

Duties of Customs payable on Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, exported from the United Kingdom to foreign parts :—	£	s.	d.
Coal, Culm, Cinders, in a foreign ship,.....ton	0	4	0
Coal, in a British ship, viz :—Not being small coal,.....	0	2	0
Small Coal, that is to say, coals which shall have been screened through a riddle or screen, the bars of which are not in any part thereof more than ⅜ of an inch asunder, and culm,.....	0	1	0
Clay and China Stone,.....cwt.	0	0	3
Cement, Stone, and Flint, (except for ballast,) ground and unground,....cwt.	0	0	6
Wools and Skins,.....	0	1	0
Manufactures, or pretended manufactures, slightly wrought up, so as that the same may be reduced to and made use of as wool again; mattresses or beds stuffed with combed wool, or wool fit for combing or carding,	0	1	0

TARIFF OF BRAZIL.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq. :—Sir—Having observed in the number of your Magazine and Commercial Review for the month of September, an article entitled "Tariff of Importation of Brazil," I beg leave to state that the per centage duty on the fixed value, as stated page 295, on flour from wheat, ought to be 15 per cent, and not 48½ per cent, as stated; and by this you will observe that the most important item of export from the United States to the empire of Brazil is not so much affected. Taking the liberty of requesting the insertion of this correction in the next number of your Review,

I remain, your most obedient subscriber,

LUIS HENRIQUE FERREIRA D'AGUIAR,

New York, Sept. 2, 1842. Brazilian Consul-General.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

SKETCH OF THE ANNUAL STATEMENT OF THE COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES FOR 1841.

We have received from the Treasury Department a copy of the annual report which has just been printed. This report is made (annually) in conformity with the provisions of the act of Congress of the 10th of February, 1820, and provides for the obtaining "accurate statements of the foreign commerce of the United States." The present report contains the usual statements, viz :—General and summary statements of the quantity and value of foreign merchandise imported and exported to different countries—General and summary statements of the quantity and value of domestic produce exported—A general statement of the quantity of American and foreign tonnage entered into the United States—A statement exhibiting the number, national character, &c., of the foreign vessels which entered into the United States—A general statement of the number of American and foreign vessels cleared from the United States, exhibiting also the number, national character, &c., of the foreign vessels which cleared from the United States—A statement of the aggregate of the foreign tonnage which entered into and cleared from the United States—A statistical view of the commerce and navigation of the United States, and of each state and territory—And statements of the number and tonnage of vessels which entered each district from foreign countries, and cleared from each district for foreign countries.

In anticipation of the regular summary statements, which we shall publish as usual, (in a future number of the magazine,) we have made the following sketch of the commerce and navigation of the United States for 1841.

The imports for the commercial year ending 30th September, 1841, amounted to $127,946,177; of which there was imported in American vessels $113,221,877, and in foreign vessels $14,724,300. The exports during the year amounted to $121,851,803; of which 106,382,000 were of domestic, and $15,469,081 of foreign articles. Of domestic articles $82,569,389 were exported in American vessels, and $23,813,333 in foreign vessels. Of the foreign articles $12,239,249 were exported in American vessels, and $3,229,832 in foreign vessels. 1,631,909 tons of American shipping entered, and 1,634,156 tons of American shipping cleared from the ports of the United States; 736,444 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 36,849 tons cleared during the same period:—

The registered tonnage is stated at	$945,803.42
Enrolled and licensed tonnage at	1,107,067.88
Fishing vessels at	77,873.37
Making a total of	2,130,744.67

Of the registered and enrolled tonnage as above stated, there were employed in the whale fishery, $157,405.17

The total tonnage of shipping built in the United States during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1841, is stated at 64,302.40 registered, and 54,591.31 enrolled—total tons and hundredths, 118,893.71.

Imports—The value of the imports from foreign countries into the United States in 1841 is as follows:—

Free of duty,	$66,019,731
Paying duties ad valorem,	34,610,642
Paying specific duties,	27,315,804
Making a total as before stated of	127,946,177

The value of merchandise paying specific duties imported into the United States in American vessels in 1841 amounted to	$23,700,022
The value of merchandise paying ad valorem duties to	30,525,629
The value of merchandise free of duty to	58,996,226
Total in American vessels,	113,221,877
The value of merchandise paying specific duties, imported into the United States in foreign vessels in 1841, amounted to	3,615,782
The value of merchandise in foreign vessels paying ad valorem duties, to	4,085,013
The value of merchandise in foreign vessels free of duty, to	7,023,505
Total in foreign vessels,	14,724,300

Exports—The value of foreign merchandise exported in 1841 amounted to $15,469,081; of which $3,632,385 was entitled to drawback, and $11,836,696 not entitled to drawback. The domestic exports of the United States in 1841 amounted, as before stated, to $106,382,722 as follows:—

Products of the Sea, embracing Fisheries,	$2,846,851
" of the Forest—Skins, Furs, &c.	993,262
" " Ginseng,	437,245
" " Wood,	4,837,345
Agriculture—Product of Animals,	4,360,180
" Vegetable Food, Breadstuffs, &c.	12,377,282
" Tobacco,	12,576,703
" Cotton,	54,330,341
" All other agricultural products,	103,441
Total of Manufactures,	13,523,072

For a table of the value of the imports and exports of each state and territory in 1841, see Merchants' Magazine for September, 1842, vol. 7, no. 3, page 286.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF NEW ORLEANS FOR 1842.

The commerce of New Orleans, embracing the imports, exports, and monthly arrivals of shipping, &c., is made up to the 31st of August in each year. From the annual statement of the New Orleans Price Current, Commercial Intelligencer, and Merchants' Transcript, we have compiled the following statements for the year 1842, commencing on the 1st of September, 1841, and ending on the 31st of August, 1842. For similar statements for ten years, from 1831 to 1841, we refer our readers to the Merchants' Magazine for November, 1841, volume v. no. 5, pp. 471 to 478, inclusive.

1.—*Exports of Cotton and Tobacco from New Orleans for one year, from the 1st of September, 1841, to the 31st of August, 1842.*

Whither Exported.	*Bales of Cotton.*	*Hhds. of Tobacco.*
Liverpool,	393,990	6,930
London,	38	7,212
Glasgow and Greenock,	15,574	.....
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.	10,740	6,827
Cork, Belfast, &c.	1,108	.....
Havre,	161,103	4,037
Bordeaux,	2,247	1,004
Marseilles,	16,992	1,933
Nantz,	2,930	.....
Cette and Rouen,	.....	.....
Amsterdam,	584	1,138
Rotterdam and Ghent,	2,907	1,882
Bremen,	6,369	8,997
Antwerp, &c.	5,209	3,690
Hamburg,	5,678	3,401
Gottenburg,	286	946
Spain and Gibraltar,	78	7,204
West Indies,	12,818	981
Genoa, Trieste, &c.	10,610	550
Other foreign ports,	174	516
New York,	31,215	7,090
Boston,	54,062	2,351
Providence, R. I.	1,910	.....
Philadelphia,	2,846	936
Baltimore,	1,703	208
Portsmouth,	2,658	.....
Other coastwise ports,	3,716	225
Western States,	1,722	.....
TOTAL,	749,267	68,058

2.—*Exports of Sugar and Molasses from New Orleans, (up the river excepted,) for one year from the 1st September, 1841, to the 31st of August, 1842.*

	SUGAR.		MOLASSES.	
Whither Exported.	*Hogsheads.*	*Barrels.*	*Hogsheads.*	*Barrels.*
New York,	13,620	405	6,377	23,525
Philadelphia,	4,170	438	882	2,169
Charleston, S. C.	614	2	270	3,311
Savannah,	313	...	...	886
Providence and Bristol,	...	...	345	347
Boston,	212	58	411	3,208
Baltimore,	6,504	288	826	11,842
Norfolk,	364	...	...	1,242
Richmond and Petersburg, Va.	1,419	56	11	2,843
Alexandria, D. C.	539	...	192	934
Mobile,	759	102	...	4,190
Apalachicola and Pensacola,	517	548	...	1,290
Other ports,	303	335	...	1,378
TOTAL,	29,334	2,232	9,314	57,165

3.—*Exports of Flour, Pork, Bacon, Lard, Beef, Lead, Whiskey, and Corn, from New Orleans, from 1st of September, 1841, to the 31st of August, 1842.*

Destina.	FLOUR. *Barrels.*	PORK. *Barrels.*	BACON. *Hhds.*	LARD. *Kegs.*	BEEF. *Barrels.*	LEAD. *Pigs.*	WHISKEY *Barrels.*	CORN. *Sacks.*
New York,..	79,471	72,671	4,221	132,848	601	226,456	5,986	90,283
Boston,.....	74,715	71,254	1,657	94,870	1,762	115,924	757	154,862
Philadelphia,	446	10,165	1,451	19,099	246	50,937	52	4,085
Baltimore,...	394	9,336	1,597	13,134	354	10,929	4,364	2,646
Charleston,...	1,150	2,700	2,462	4,862	154	.....	2,425	7,408
Oth. Coastw.	17,856	8,533	2,413	4,335	828	.....	12,207	64,731
Cuba,.....	23,867	237	302	74,847	135	.....	.....	.....
Oth. Foreign	73,596	12,220	376	97,413	2,181	43,637	960	27,212
TOTAL,....	271,495	187,116	14,479	441,408	6,261	447,883	26,751	351,227

In the above, the exports to Mobile, &c., *via* the Pontchartrain railroad, are not included. Also, vessels reported in the clearances as having provisions and merchandise.

4.—*Comparative Arrivals, Exports, and Stocks of Cotton and Tobacco at New Orleans, for ten years; from September 1st to August 31st.*

Years.	COTTON—BALES. *Arrivals.*	*Exports.*	*Stocks.*	TOBACCO—HOGSHEADS. *Arrivals.*	*Exports.*	*Stocks.*
1841–42.....	740,155	749,267	4,428	67,555	68,058	2,255
1840–41.....	822,870	821,288	14,490	53,170	54,667	2,758
1839–40.....	954,445	949,320	17,867	43,827	40,436	4,409
1838–39.....	578,514	579,179	10,308	28,153	30,852	1,294
1837–38.....	742,720	738,313	9,570	37,588	35,555	3,834
1836–37.....	605,813	588,969	20,678	28,501	35,821	3,857
1835–36.....	495,442	490,495	4,586	50,555	41,634	10,456
1834–35.....	536,172	536,991	3,649	35,059	33,801	1,821
1833–34.....	467,984	461,026	4,082	25,871	25,210	717
1832–33.....	403,833	410,524	816	20,627	23,637	1,203

5.—*Statement showing the Receipts of the Principal Articles at New Orleans from the interior, during the year commencing 1st of September, 1841, and ending 31st August, 1842, with their estimated average and total value.*

	Amount.	*Average.*	*Value.*
Apples,.....barrels	26,443	$1 75	$46,274
Bacon, assorted,.....hhds. and casks	13,382	20 00	267,640
Bacon, assorted,.....boxes	123	10 00	1,230
Bacon Hams,.....hhds. and boxes	9,220	25 00	230,500
Bacon, in bulk,.....pounds	1,288,100	2¼	22,542
Bagging,.....pieces	60,307	13 00	783,991
Bale Rope,.....coils	63,307	7 00	443,149
Beans,.....barrels	10,993	2 00	21,986
Butter,.....kegs and firkins	11,791	4 60	47,164
Butter,.....barrels	284	12 00	3,408
Beeswax,.....barrels	343	30 00	10,290
Beeswax,.....pounds	3,300	23	699
Beef,.....barrels	17,445	4 75	82,863
Beef, Dried,.....pounds	60,800	6	3,648
Buffalo Robes,.....packs	3,122	50 00	156,100
Cotton,.....bales	740,155	33 00	24,425,115
Corn Meal,.....barrels	6,023	1 25	7,528
Corn, in ear,.....barrels	240,675	50	120,038
Corn, Shelled,.....sacks	338,709	70	237,096
Cheese,.....casks	2,710	14 00	37,940
Candles,.....boxes	3,593	4 00	14,372
Cider,.....barrels	1,130	3 00	3,390
Coal, Western,.....barrels	110,583	50	55,292
Dried Apples and Peaches,.....barrels	1,978	2 00	3,956
Feathers,.....bags	1,737	6 00	10,422
Flaxseed,.....tierces	799	12 00	9,588
Flour,.....barrels	439,688	5 00	2,198,440

Statement, Etc.—*Continued.*	*Amount.*	*Average.*	*Value.*
Furs,.....boxes	.....	.....	250,000
Furs,.....bundles	.....	.....	
Hemp,.....bundles	1,211	15 00	18,165
Hides,.....	26,169	1 25	32,461
Hay,.....bundles	20,166	3 25	65,540
Iron, pig,.....tons	322	22 00	7,084
Lard,.....hogsheads	74	50 00	3,700
Lard,.....barrels	18,207	12 00	218,484
Lard,.....kegs	366,694	2 50	916,735
Leather,.....bundles	940	18 00	16,920
Lime, Western,.....barrels	830	50	415
Lead,.....pigs	472,556	2 20	1,039,623
Lead, Bar,.....keg and boxes	1,084	12 00	13,008
Lead, White,.....kegs	592	2 00	1,184
Molasses, (estimated crop,).....hogsheads	35,000	13 00	450,000
Oats,.....barrels	63,281	60	337,969
Onions,.....barrels	3,338	2 00	66,676
Oil, Linseed,.....barrels	305	35 00	10,675
Oil, Castor,.....barrels	3,666	50 00	183,300
Peach Brandy,.....barrels	267	18 00	4,806
Potatoes,.....barrels	26,201	1 50	39,302
Pork,.....barrels	244,442	6 00	1,422,252
Pork,.....hogsheads	946	20 00	18,920
Pork, in bulk,.....pounds	4,051,800	2½	101,295
Porter and Ale,.....barrels	514	8 00	4,112
Packing Yarn,.....reels	1,888	4 00	4,552
Rum,.....barrels	1,009	9 00	9,081
Skins, Deer,.....packs	3,219	10 00	32,194
Skins, Bear,.....packs	.....	.....	2,500
Shot,.....kegs	3,416	15 00	51,240
Soap,.....boxes	1,932	3 00	5,796
Staves,.....	1,800,000	25 00	35,000
Sugar, (estimated crop,).....hogsheads	90,000	40 00	3,600,000
Spanish Moss,.....bales	1,756	7 00	12,192
Tallow,.....barrels	5,071	15 00	76,065
Tobacco, Leaf,.....hogsheads	54,855	39 00	2,136,645
Tobacco, Strips,.....hogsheads	12,000	125 00	1,500,000
Tobacco, Chewing,.....kegs and boxes	3,618	15 00	54,270
Tobacco,.....bales	3,298	2 50	8,245
Twine,.....bundles and boxes	1,079	10 00	10,790
Vinegar,.....barrels	521	3 00	1,563
Whiskey,.....barrels	63,345	6 00	360,070
Window Glass,.....boxes	2,761	4 00	11,044
Wheat,.....barrels and sacks	134,886	2 50	337,215
Other various articles, estimated at.....			3,000,000
Total Value,.....			$45,716,045

6.—*Monthly Arrivals of Ships, Barks, Brigs, Schooners, and Steamboats, from 1st September*, 1841, *to 31st August*, 1842.

	Ships.	*Barks.*	*Brigs.*	*Schooners.*	*Total.*	*Steamboats.*
September,.....	15	8	6	17	46	59
October,.....	58	9	34	17	118	150
November,.....	110	19	34	41	204	221
December,.....	72	27	34	45	178	291
January,.....	47	24	35	56	162	265
February,.....	51	17	25	38	131	219
March,.....	61	26	25	28	140	227
April,.....	52	21	21	27	121	195
May,.....	71	21	24	18	134	183
June,.....	35	18	15	16	84	136
July,.....	17	2	17	11	47	105
August,.....	10	6	9	13	38	81
Total,.....	599	198	279	327	1,403	2,132

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF RIO DE JANEIRO,

FOR A SERIES OF YEARS.

We are indebted to the politeness of Luiz Henrique Ferreira d'Aguiar, the intelligent consul-general to the United States from Brazil, for the following statement of the exports, imports, navigation, and revenue of Rio Janeiro, and also the revenues of the whole empire of Brazil for a series of years.

Leading Imports.	*Total Imports.*		*From the United States.*	
	1840.	1841.	1840.	1841.
Candles, Sperm,.....boxes	5,497	6,838	3,857	2,769
Candles, Tallow,.....boxes	11,063	16,239	150	160
Cordage,.....packs	4,779	5,302	954	1,336
Flour,.....barrels	166,535	229,155	157,927	207,583
Haberdashery,.....packages	1,919	2,834	56	180
Hams,.....casks	2,404	3,021	30	9
Hams, Loose,.....	10,056	11,685	5,086	5,664
Lumber,.....feet	371,135	1,370,053	371,137	1,368,551
Manufactures of Cotton,.....packages	28,637	36,130	6,169	8,961
" of Linen,.....packages	4,059	3,745	43	30
" of Silk,.....packages	741	1,444	198	141
" of Wool,.....packages	4,343	5,568	1	10
Mess Beef,.....barrels	600	1,277	91	833
Mess Pork,.....barrels	1,333	1,530	251	960
Oil, Fish,.....gallons	30,300	298,440	4,200	104,041
Pepper,.....bags	792	749	743	649
Rosin,.....barrels	5,495	7,456	5,311	7,428
Pitch,.....barrels	1,184	1,897	175	672
Soap,.....boxes	49,619	42,898	3,110	1,618
Tar,.....barrels	1,656	2,910	19	180
Tea,.....packages	1,879	2,602	1,374	2,031
Turpentine,.....barrels	244	79	243	78
Wheat,.....sacks	3,983	8,554	50	250

Leading Exports.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Coffee,.....arrobes	3,148,670	3,908,255	4,358,925	5,319,005	5,069,575
Sugar,.....cases	17,598	19,996	17,627	13,499	10,465
Hides,.....	141,782	192,710	141,492	194,506	152,548
Horns,.....	262,307	405,792	233,094	278,441	310,853
Half-tanned Hides,.....	4,306	8,330	12,780	13,573	22,100
Rice,.....bags	25,401	14,737	29,112	19,989	18,788
Rum,.....pipes	3,645	5,427	3,397	3,407	2,176
Tapioca,..... barrels	2,006	523	473	1,382	3,088
Tobacco,.....rolls	18,115	24,119	23,493	28,760	28,078
Rose Wood,...dozen planks	611	506	1,016	841	1,202
Oleo Wood,.....do.	.....	.....	.....	152	183

Navigation.—Commercial arrivals and departures, coastwise and foreign, during the year 1841, compared with those of four preceding years :—

	Coastwise Arrivals.		*Departures.*		*Foreign Arrivals.*		*Departures.*	
Year.	*Vess.*	*Tonnage.*	*Vess.*	*Tonnage.*	*Vess.*	*Tonnage.*	*Vess.*	*Tonna.*
1837.....	1820	120,832	1932	141,562	700	143,909	667	140,649
1838.....	1870	136,353	1876	148,427	789	169,277	851	185,808
1839.....	1864	134,904	2007	167,274	842	181,855	845	203,117
1840.....	1947	135,360	1931	144,153	842	182,352	816	215,752
1841.....	1815	123,360	1929	139,501	915	206,160	867	270,651

Revenue.—Revenues of the customs and consulado of Rio de Janeiro :—

Year.	*Cust. Ho.—reis.*	*Consula.—reis.*	*Year.*	*Cust. Ho.—reis.*	*Consula.—reis.*
1837.....	4,066 : 305,251	1,247 : 063,215	1840.....	6,953 : 670,645	1,909 : 684,369
1838.....	5,155 : 000,341	1,610 : 318,527	1841.....	7,618 : 871,180	1,837 : 414,148
1839.....	5,952 : 233,031	1,795 : 344,299	1842		

Coffee exported from the port of Rio Janeiro :—1820, arrobes, 487,500; 1825, arro., 912,550; 1830, arro., 1,958,925; 1835, arro., 3,135,825; 1840, arro., 5,319,005.

Revenues of the Customs and Consulados of the Empire of Brazil.

Year.	*Cust. Ho.—reis.*	*Consula.—reis.*	*Year.*	*Cust. Ho.—reis.*	*Consula.—reis.*
1836–37	8,010 : 317,000	2,757 : 571,000	1838–39	9,966 : 259,000	3,505 : 339,000
1837–38	7,245 : 203,000	2,871 : 160,000	1839–40	10,610 : 087,000	3,461 : 732,000

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*A Descriptive and Historical Account of Hydraulic and other Machines for Raising Water, Ancient and Modern;* with Observations on Various Subjects connected with the Mechanic Arts, including the Progressive Development of the Steam Engine, &c. &c. In five books; illustrated by nearly three hundred engravings. By THOMAS EWBANK. 1 vol. 8vo. pp. 582. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

This is, we believe, the only volume ever published, embracing an account of all the contrivances employed in different ages by different people for raising water, whether for domestic, agricultural, mining, manufacturing, or other purposes. Mr. Ewbank, the author, has devoted several years to the collection of works and materials; and in the preparation of this volume has evinced a remarkable degree of industry, and the most patient and untiring research. "Every individual device has of course not been described, but every class or species is noticed, with such examples of each as will enable the general reader to comprehend the principle and action of all." The first book is devoted to primitive and ancient devices for raising water; the second to machines for raising water by the pressure of the atmosphere; the third to machines for raising water by compressure, independently of atmospheric influence; the fourth to machines, chiefly of modern invention, including early applications of steam for that purpose; the fifth and last book embraces a variety of novel devices, with an account of syphons, cocks, valves, &c. It is really one of the most remarkable publications connected with mechanical philosophy that has ever fallen under our observation, and cannot fail of interesting the ingenious mechanic or the miscellaneous reader who possesses a large and liberal curiosity for mechanical science or general information. The engravings, the letter-press, and indeed the work in its entire mechanical appearance, will not suffer by comparison with the handsomest works of this class emanating from the British press.

2. *Johnsoniana; or, Supplement to Boswell:* being Anecdotes and Sayings of SAMUEL JOHNSON, LL.D. Edited by J. WILSON CROKER. 12mo. pp. 529 Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1842.

This is a very interesting collection of the sayings and doings of that giant of English literature, Dr. Samuel Johnson. The volume contains a great number of anecdotes, gathered from the writings of nearly one hundred of his contemporaries, embracing many of the most distinguished literary characters of the age in which he lived; which, together with Boswell's singularly minute biography, completes as it were the intellectual and moral portrait of Johnson. Taken by themselves alone, these "*ana*" claim a place with the best books of that popular description in our own or any other language. They form one of the richest collections of materials for thinking to be found in the wide range of British literature. The present edition, the first American, is embellished with several portraits, among which is a full-length of the "great observed of all observers." It is, in our judgment, one of the most amusing and agreeable works reproduced in this country for a long time.

3.—*Models of English Literature;* for the Use of Colleges and Academies. Baltimore: John Murphy. 1842.

The selections in prose and verse, narrative, descriptive, oratorical, moral and didactic, &c., embraced in this volume, are generally made in good taste; and the writer professes to have guarded against a sectarian spirit, which would tend to destroy the harmony that should ever be preserved among students. This is true, in the main; there is, however, in one of the articles the assumption of a doctrine, that one denomination of Christians, at least, do not consider either reasonable or scriptural. On the whole, however, we consider it one of the best compilations of English literature, for the purpose proposed in the title-page, extant.

4.—*A History of the Life of Edward the Black Prince, and of Various Events connected therewith, which occurred during the reign of Edward III. King of England.* By G. P. R. James. From the second edition, complete in two volumes. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1842.

Not only is the trite saying that "truth is stranger than fiction" true, but it is equally true that it is frequently much more interesting than fiction, and excites more forcibly the imagination and the heart. It is especially so in reference to the book before us, in which Mr. James, while handling a subject purely historical, has succeeded in making a work possessing as much interest for the general reader as any of his much-admired novels. It is true that the author had great advantages in the subject and time he has chosen. The time embraces the culmination of chivalry—when the spirit was most brilliant and most refined—when, as if conscious of its coming decline, it flashed up with renewed ardor, and showered a blaze of glory around the system which should illuminate it after its decay. A subject could not of course be found more interesting in the long range of history. The Black Prince was the impersonation of all knightly qualities and accomplishments, and one of the best representatives that ever lived of that institution with which is associated all our ideas of the romance of the past. As might be expected, the character of the youthful hero of Cressy and Poictiers suffers none in the hands of Mr. James.

5.—*The History of the Reformation of the Church of England.* By Gilbert Burnet, D.D., late Lord Bishop of Salisbury. With the Collection of Records, and a Copious Index, revised and corrected, with Additional Notes and a Preface, by the Rev. E. Nares, D.D., late Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford. With a frontispiece, and twenty-three engraved portraits. 4 vols. 8vo. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The character of Bishop Burnet's History of the Reformation as a standard work and valuable historical authority, is so well known that it would be a work of supererogation on our part to attempt to add any testimonial to its intrinsic and undisputed excellence. But, in justice to the publishers, we must say that it is got up in a manner so creditable to the typography of the American press, that the most prejudiced advocate of English editions of standard literature would be induced to give it the preference to any other copy of the work (so far as we know) extant. The corrections of Dr. Nares, whose distinct preface points out and explains to readers in general the particular character of the publication, renders it the most accurate, as it is the most beautiful edition ever published.

6.—*The Book of the Navy;* comprising a General History of the American Marine; of all the most celebrated Naval Battles, from the Declaration of Independence to the Present Time. Compiled from the best authorities. By John Frost, A.M. Embellished with numerous engravings, from original drawings, by William Croome, etc. 8vo. pp. 344. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

Mr. Frost has in this handsomely printed and beautifully illustrated volume brought together, in an agreeable manner, a sketch of the early history of our navy, the naval campaigns during the war of the American revolution, the French war of 1798, and the last war with England, which contributed so much to the fame and glory of our country. In recounting the events of that war, Mr. Frost has avoided a one-sided self-glorifying view of the achievements of our navy and the brave spirits who commanded; and while justice is done to the valor and patriotism of the naval heroes of the Republic, the claims of the "enemy in war" to like qualities are not depreciated.

7.—*Introduction to the Science of Government;* and Compend of the Constitutional and Civil Jurisprudence of the United States: with a Brief Treatise on Political Economy. By Andrew W. Young. Rochester: William Alling. 1842.

This work has reached the eighth edition since 1839. It is designed for the use of families and schools. Briefly and clearly elucidating the principles of government, and explaining the nature and character of that of the United States, and our civil jurisprudence, it commends itself to a kingdom whose people are the sovereigns who make the laws which are to govern them. The treatise on political economy is intended rather to teach the elementary principles than to settle questions on which the most eminent statesmen and economists are divided. Hence the arguments for the protective and the free-trade principles are stated with fairness and candor; without an attempt to decide on the correctness of either policy.

8.—*The History of Fiction.* By JOHN DUNLOP. 2 vols. pp. 452, 453. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1842.

We should never allow ourselves, as Americans, to cherish the least ill feeling towards the publishers of this country for occasionally transplanting a flower from the ever-blooming garden of literature into our soil. Messrs. Carey & Hart much rather deserve our unlimited praise for the spirit they manifest in laying English works of merit open before the American public. The work before us evinces an immensity of research, as well as indefatigable care and attention. As far as we can possibly judge, with our limited knowledge, we should say that it is complete. The author enumerates in as easy and familiar a style as such a subject well admits of, all the works of fiction from the *beginning* up to the present time, that have outlived their birth. Of the most interesting, and of such as have had a decided influence upon the writings of later times, he gives faithful analyses, most of which contain all that is really worth remembering of the whole works, besides being so put together as to be very interesting. Special care is bestowed upon those works which serve to illustrate particular historical periods. The value of the work to *belles-lettres* men is inestimable; and we think it will not be long before every library that pretends to any completeness in that kind of works will be enriched by a copy.

9.—*Elements of Chemistry, including the most recent Discoveries and Applications of the Science to Medicine and Pharmacy, and to the Arts.* By ROBERT KANE, M.D., M.R.I.A., Professor of Natural Philosophy to the Royal Dublin Society, Professor of Chemistry to the Apothecaries' Hall of Ireland, Member of the Society of Pharmacy of Paris, and of the German Pharmaceutical Society, &c. &c. &c. An American edition, with Additions and Corrections; and Arranged for the use of the Universities, Colleges, Academies, and Medical Schools of the United States, by JOHN WILLIAM DRAPER, M.D., Professor of Chemistry in the University of New York, formerly Professor of Physical Science and Physiology in Hampden Sidney College, Virginia, Member of the Lyceum of Natural History of New York, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 704. New York: Harper & Brothers.

One of the most important, and at the same time difficult, things in writing an elementary work, is to make it interesting to the young student. Such works are, for the most part, proverbially dry and tedious to beginners. If we have judged rightly, Dr. Kane's very able text book will not be found liable to this objection, but, on the contrary, full of interest; and this arises from his having so completely prepared the mind of the student for the details of the science by his introductory chapters, and the clear and forcible manner in which those details are afterwards presented. The greatest accuracy in such a work is extremely important, and this is insured by Professor Draper's revision. He has also made some valuable additions of his own.

10.—*The Boston Miscellany of Literature and Fashion.* Edited by NATHAN HALE, Jr. Vol. 1, January to July, 1842. 8vo. pp. 284. Boston and New York: Bradbury, Soden & Co.

This is certainly the most beautifully printed serial of the day, and among the various journals devoted to light and fashionable literature, we are not acquainted with one that can with any show of justice lay claim to precedence on the score of literary composition. The present volume contains original contributions from our Minister at the Court of St. James, Edward Everett, and his brother, Alexander Everett, Channing, Story, Hawthorn, Willis, and other eminent writers. The engravings (to say nothing of the fashion plates, the only item of bad taste in the work,) are on the whole the best we have seen connected with American periodical literature.

11.—*Breakfast Table Science;* or the Philosophy of Common Things. Written expressly for the amusement and instruction of young people. By J. H. WRIGHT. New York: Alexander V. Blake. 1842.

This little volume contains a variety of familiar dialogues, explaining in an agreeable and attractive manner, the philosophy of common every-day things; and there is little reason to apprehend that a child who opens this book, and runs his eye over the quaint and ingenious table of contents, will lay it aside before he is sufficiently interested to make him keep the book and read it through. It is admirably adapted to aid in that most important of all instruction—home education—and render it pleasant and delightful.

☞ A number of notices of new books are crowded out, but will appear in our next.

THE PROPERTY OF THE PEOPLE

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

NOVEMBER, 1842.

ART. I.—LIFE OF THE HON. JOSEPH HOPKINSON, LL. D.

JOSEPH HOPKINSON was born in the city of Philadelphia, in the year 1770. His father, an Englishman by descent, though sturdily devoted to the American cause, from the period when it became distinguished from that of the mother country, had enjoyed in full those opportunities of liberal education which the respectability and wealth of his family afforded. A great lawyer during the dependence of the colonies, one of the firmest and most ardent of the statesmen who took part in the revolution, he became, when the constitution was established, one of its most strenuous and efficient supporters. Eminent not only as a lawyer, but as a literary man, his works take a prominent place in the library of our principal authors; and though the criticism of Dr. Rush, that in humor and satire he was not surpassed by Lucian, Swift, or Rabelais, may be considered too highly colored, there is no doubt the volumes he left behind him, contain some of the most witty and pointed essays of the age. Ample, quick, versatile in his talents, there was scarcely a subject in the great fields of literature and the arts which he had not handled; and of no one could it be said with more truth than of Francis Hopkinson, that whatever he touched, he touched gracefully and usefully.

There is a similarity between the history of Mr. Francis Hopkinson and his more distinguished son, which must strike the most casual observer. Both lawyers of learning, and of eminence; both distinguished for their elegance as scholars, and as writers for their brilliancy; both carried from the bar to the bench in the meridian of life, and both filling for almost the same period of time the same judicial office; their lives presented a coincidence which was caused as much by sameness of character as by similarity of circumstance. The features which distinguish the portrait of the father which is placed at the opening of his works—the tall and peaked forehead, the small, quick eye, and earnest expression—will call forth in the minds of those who look on it, the recollection of his son when at the same period of life; and when it is remembered, that the outward likeness was sustained and carried out by a similarity of mind and of dis-

position far more remarkable, the parallel becomes one of the most striking that biography can afford.

Joseph Hopkinson was educated at the University of Pennsylvania, where he took his degree a short time after the establishment of the constitution. Admitted at the age of twenty-one to the bar in his native city, he entered at once upon a practice whose extent was commensurate, both to his ability and to the circumstances in which he was placed. Of the lawyers of his peculiar generation, there are none whose names appear in the reports of that day so frequently and so prominently as his own; and in those few trials which possessed interest enough to allow of their transmission from that day to this, there is scarcely one in which he did not take part. In the trial of Mr. Cobbett in the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, in 1799, he was the leading counsel, and even at that early period of his life, when he was thrown in competition with men whose learning and experience had placed them for years at the head of the bar, he obtained a reputation for oratorical ability and legal soundness, which was excelled by none of his contemporaries. It was at the same period, that the ode, "Hail Columbia," was written; an ode, that without the pretension of any thing besides sound sentiment and true principle, has taken its place with the Marseilles Hymn, and the Rhine Song, at the head of National Lyrics.*

On the fourth of February, 1805, Mr. Hopkinson appeared in the Senate chamber in defence of Judge Chase, then under impeachment for high

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* "It was written," said Judge Hopkinson, in a letter dated a few months before his death, "in the summer of 1798, when war with France was thought to be inevitable. Congress was then in session in Philadelphia, deliberating upon that important event, and acts of hostility had actually taken place. The contest between England and France was raging, and the people of the United States were divided into parties for the one side or the other, some thinking that policy and duty required us to espouse the cause of republican France, as she was called; while others were for connecting ourselves with England, under the belief that she was the great preservative power of good government and safe principles. The violation of our rights by both belligerents was forcing us from the just and wise policy of President Washington, which was to do equal justice to both, to take part with neither, but to preserve a strict and honest neutrality between them. The prospect of a rupture with France was exceedingly offensive to the portion of the people who espoused her cause, and the violence of the spirit of party has never risen higher, I think not so high, in our country, as it did at that time, upon that question. The theatre was then open in our city. A young man belonging to it, whose talent was great as a singer, was about to take his benefit. I had known him when he was at school. On this acquaintance he called on me on Saturday afternoon, his benefit being announced for the following Monday. His prospects were very disheartening; but he said if he could get a patriotic song adapted to the tune of the 'President's March,' he did not doubt of a full house; that the poets of the theatrical corps had been trying to accomplish it, but had not been successful. I told him I would try what I could do for him. He came the next afternoon, and the song, such as it was, was ready. The object of the author was to get up an *American spirit*, which should be independent of, and above, the interests, passions, and policy of both belligerents; and look and feel exclusively for our own honor and rights. No allusion is made to France or England, or the quarrel between them; or to the question which is most at fault in their treatment of us: of course the song found favor with both parties, for both were American; at least, neither could disavow the sentiments and feelings it inculcated. Such is the history of this song, which has endured infinitely beyond the expectation of the author, as it is beyond any merit it can boast of, except that of being truly and exclusively patriotic in its sentiments and spirit."

crimes and misdemeanors. Never before that time, never, perhaps, but once since, had a trial of such high and solemn interest occupied the attention of the country. A member of the supreme court of judicature of the United States was brought before the highest legislative authority of the land, under charge, not of having been guilty of treason against the government, not of having abused the prerogatives of his office for personal aggrandizement, but of having, in times of high political excitement, entered into the contest with all the power with which his judicial functions invested him. In the foremost of the fight, it was said, he had thrown the ermine of justice; and there, with his hand upraised against the chief of the opposing ranks, had he dared the vengeance of those who would have held him within the precincts of the altar of which he had been consecrated a high priest. Other charges there were, but they were stamped as less worthy of support,—one of them by the unanimous vote of the Senate, the others by votes far inferior to those by which the chief topic of the impeachment was supported; and on the day on which the Vice-President took his seat as chief judge in that high court into which the Senate was then converted, it was understood that Judge Chase, if he fell at all, was to fall a victim to the spirit of party which had held so vehement a sway in his own breast, and which had aggravated to so fierce a pitch the vengeance of his antagonists.

In the opening speech of Mr. Randolph, who had been selected by the House of Representatives as the manager of the impeachment, Judge Chase had been compared to Warren Hastings, and the trial then in progress, to the great contest which for seven years had rent asunder both houses of the British legislature. In some features there was a similarity. For years the rafters on which the impeachment in both cases was based, had been buried till they had become mouldered and swollen; and when at last they were brought to light, when at last they were laid down as the structure on which the prosecution was to be erected, they were covered with the excrescences of fraud and of obscurity which so long a slumber had wound round them. Witnesses had forgotten their distinct original impressions in the lapse of time, and had mended the garment, which the wear of years had defaced, with patches of whatever color it suited their partialities to produce. Prosecutors lost the rough homeliness of the objects against which their gaze was directed, in the mellow drapery which time and distance had thrown round them, and both prosecutors and judges, forgetting the personal rights and immunities of the defendant at their bar, took up the charge as an historical abstraction, and except when it was necessary for the purposes of invective or personification, dropped from their view the vivid personal claims of the man who of all others was most interested in their decision.

In the manner in which the two causes were conducted by the prosecution, there was a wide difference. Never was a more splendid display of oratorical might exhibited than that which was collected in the manager's box at the House of Lords during the impeachment of Warren Hastings. Every department of rhetoric, from the gorgeous imagery of Burke to the steady reasoning of Fox,—every note in the gamut between those two distant extremes which from their very opposition so beautifully harmonized together,—was exhibited in that little knot of men who had undertaken the prosecution of the late governor-general of India. In the management of the impeachment of Judge Chase, with the exception of

the late Mr. Randolph, there was not a man of original or of distinguished ability engaged; and of all others, Mr. Randolph was the least fitted for the arrangement and the exposition of a case so vast in its extent and so intricate in its features. Well calculated from his unscrupulous audacity, from his bold invective, from his utter heedlessness of remote or contingent probabilities, for the leadership of a minority in the House of Representatives, he possessed neither the discipline of mind, the extent of learning, nor the power of argumentation necessary for so great a task as that which the impeachment of Judge Chase imposed upon him. It is said that once after having, among a vast mass of private and local bills, disposed of a resolution for the payment of the debts incurred in rebuilding the capitol, by moving its reference to the committee of unfinished business, a mechanic who had been gazing for some time at the lank and unhewn limbs, at the roughly sculptured features of the orator, moved from the gallery, with a voice that caused the House to lose at once its self-possession, that Mr. Randolph himself be referred to the same committee. Unfinished and fragmentary in all that he thought, in all that he devised, in all that he executed, his speeches, and above all, his famous speech on Judge Chase's prosecution, present a disorderly compound of materials, sometimes rare but generally worthless, thrown, like the shattered remnants of a shipwreck on the shore, without system, without harmony, and without beauty.

If the prosecution was behind the standard of that which conducted the impeachment of Warren Hastings, such was by no means the case with the defence. At its head stood Mr. Hopkinson, then in the opening of a career as rapid as it was brilliant; while next to him were placed Robert Goodloe Harper, one of the most ingenious and most classical controversialists at the bar, and Luther Martin, who as a debater and as a lawyer bore a remarkable similitude to Mr. Law, afterwards Lord Ellenborough, who was the leading counsel in the defence of Mr. Hastings. Sturdy in both body and mind, endued with the properties of a Dacian gladiator in person, and with a toughness, a coarseness, a vigor of intellect that could endure the severest fatigues, could make the most vehement exertions, could sustain the most protracted conflicts, there was no march too forced for him to attempt, and no battle too desperate to deter him from its encounter. "That federal bull-dog" was the title which Mr. Jefferson had given him at the time he was a member of the Constitutional Convention; and if the epithet was applicable to him then, when he was but a junior member of the guard who were circled around the reserved prerogatives of the government, it became far more descriptive of him when in later days,—when his old fellow-watchmen had dropped off or deser ' from around him,—he remained almost the solitary sentinel of that ient standard which had been surrounded by a great and powerful party. Never till his death, no matter how dark the night was, or how portentous the omens, or how lonely the post, did he cease to give warning in his hoarse voice of the dangers to which his charge was exposed. It was on Judge Chase's trial that his ablest speech was made; and it may safely be said, that as an example of strong Saxon reasoning, as an illustration of the effect which attends that original force of mind, which, not content with overleaping the obstacles in its way, annihilates them in its passage, it has not its equal except among those great speeches delivered by Mr. Fox at the time of the Westminster scrutiny. His client's cause had

become his own, not by a sudden rhetorical transposition thrown off in the heat of argument, when for the time being he had lost his own entity in the great cause he was sustaining,—but from a friendship and communion of fifteen years, which had consolidated their attachments, had assimilated their principles, and had united their names. So entire had been his absorption, so utter the surrender of the flesh to the spirit, that on the second day of his speech he spoke without intermission, without breakfast or dinner, from the opening of the session till five in the afternoon; and it was only when by a warning that could not be mistaken, his fatigue displayed itself, that he became conscious of the exhaustion he had undergone. The effect he produced upon the Senate was tremendous, and on the 5th article, on which great stress had been laid by the managers, and which it fell to his lot particularly to defend, the acquittal of his client was unanimous.

Of that great auditory there are perhaps none now living to tell the history of the trial that for two weeks carried the Senate from its legitimate business, and involved it in the detail of an action the most intricate and the most extended. But one of the senators who sat as judges in that great impeachment has been left behind from the company which filled the chairs around the Vice-President; and we hope that if ever that extraordinary journal should be published which it is said Mr. Adams has kept from the opening of his public life, it will dwell in full on a scene which is among the most important of those into which he has entered during the course of his remarkable career. The youngest man among the senators, at that time among the least known, he entered into the trial with that same vehement partisanship, with that same intense application that has characterized him in each of that long train of public services which have displayed at the same time the versatility and the waywardness of his genius. Directly to his right sat Aaron Burr, then engaged in the discharge of the last of his official duties. But lately returned from that melancholy field in which his great rival had lost his life and he his character,—hated by Mr. Jefferson, because he had yielded to the intrigues of the federalists, and for nine long ballotings had divided with him the choice of the House of Representatives for President,—distrusted by the democrats, because he had submitted, against their unanimous vote, to be placed in competition for that high station by their antagonists,—shunned by the federalists, because his hand was red with the blood of their leader,—he stood before the people as a ruined and a desperate man, and each senator, as he looked upon him, knew that he was ready to enter into the maddest game which reckless and goaded ambition could devise. Yet even then, in the moment when he was about taking his final leave of the capitol, where once he could have been among the first, he preserved in its full serenity that dauntless composure, that severe dignity which so strongly characterized him in the discharge of his exterior duties. Never did his extraordinary power over the passions of those with whom he had to deal, manifest itself more singularly than in the conduct of the trial, and in the remarkable scene which followed it. One of the senators who sat by him said he wished that the tradition of Mr. Burr's parting with the Senate could be preserved, as one of the most remarkable events ever witnessed. Another, a strong political antagonist of the Vice-President's, when asked the day after how long Mr. Burr had been speaking when he took his leave, answered that he could form no idea,—it might have been

an hour, it might have been but a moment,—when he came to his senses, he seemed to have wakened from a kind of trance.*

There is something in the manner in which the impeachment of Judge Chase and the impeachment of Mr. Hastings were conducted, which is illustrative, as far as it goes, of the antagonist features of the systems to which they mutually belonged. In the one case, a man who had trampled under foot every law, national and municipal, who had committed in wholesale, crimes which, if distributed in infinitesimal doses in the mother country, would have carried the perpetrator to the gallows, who had corrupted Indian justice, who had pillaged Indian churches, who had hired out, in a cause the most iniquitous and unfounded, the troops which were trusted to him for objects the most sacred, was acquitted by a vast majority, on the plea that flagrant as were his misdeeds, they were entered into for objects so nationally grand as to lose their demerit in their magnitude. In the other case, a man who had served his country earnestly and nobly; who, foremost in the great fight of the revolution, had staked his ample fortune, his good name, his future welfare; who in camp, in the Senate, on missions the most severe and perilous, in parts the most exposed and trying, had preserved unblotted that fair reputation which had grown up with him from his boyhood;—on whose broad arm, when chairman of the committee of safety, Washington had leant in the most gloomy period of the battle;—was impeached, and escaped from conviction on one charge at least, by a vote lacking not much of the constitutional majority of two-thirds, because in the office of judge of the supreme court he had at one time interfered with the prerogatives of counsel; at another had dwelt, in a charge to a grand jury, on the political aspect of the state. His merits, his character, his history, served rather to add force to the censure which was pronounced on his errors, than to mitigate it; and by his impeachment and trial the rare spectacle was afforded,—a spectacle which it would be well for this country if it had been studied and repeated,—of that equal distribution of justice, which exonerates neither the great from his exaltation, nor the mean from his insignificance.

Mr. Hopkinson's success at the bar was as complete as it was rapid. Appearing at one of those singular junctures which mark, like the trough between waves, the interval between the generation just past, and the generation just following, his talents, which under any circumstances would have commanded attention and support, arose at once to a prominence which was as just to themselves as it was natural from the bold relief into which they were thrown. Had Mr. Hopkinson's name been connected with commercial law alone, he would have deserved a full and complete notice in these pages. Arising at a time when the bounda-

* In a letter written to his daughter a few days after, Mr. Burr says, "There was nothing written or prepared, except that it was in my mind to say something. It was the solemnity, the anxiety, the expectation, and the interest which I saw strongly painted in the countenances of the auditors, that inspired what I said. I neither shed tears nor assumed tenderness, but tears did flow abundantly. I am told that some of the papers lately make qualified compliments; thus for instance, referring to Judge Chase's trial, 'He conducted with the dignity and impartiality of an angel, but the rigor of a devil.'"—Burr's Life, II. 360.

ries of that great science were as yet, in this hemisphere, unsurveyed; entering into practice at a period when our commerce, with the force of a torrent which had burst the chains which its mountain home had thrown over it, poured forward in all points of the horizon, forcing itself into new and uncalculated combinations, perforating every nook of the sphere that lay before it, and calling for rules far different from those which in an earlier period of history were applicable;—coming into active life at an era so critical, so important, his whole energies became for a time devoted to the great task of defining the limits and describing the course of the stream which had been just called into action. Of his labors—of the labors of the great men who stood by him in the work of reducing to system and harmony the commercial spirit of the age—but few records have been left. The triumphs of a lawyer are confined to a narrow sphere, and no matter how splendid may be his achievements, how completely he may eradicate from the husk of mistake and error the germinal truth that lies underneath it, or how signally he may compose strifes which for generations had rent asunder families and clans, or how conclusively he may determine those great points of constitutional law whose very doubtfulness create disunion—there is no arch erected to mark the progress of his arms, and no obelisk to show the spot where his victory was consummated. The individuality of the principle which he has settled becomes lost among the precedents which surround it; and he himself, unless he should be caught up and canonized by the politician, results back into that countless company of great men, who in the infancy of the world laid the foundation of those ancient edifices of science and of knowledge under whose shade their latest descendants will be sheltered.

It was Mr. Hopkinson's lot to be transferred into the political arena before his career at the bar was half finished. Identified with the federalists as one of the most able and most consistent in their ranks, their first act, when it was ascertained they had again obtained a majority in the district of Philadelphia, was to place him at the head of their congressional nomination. With a vote which, from its increase over the average of his ticket, did honor to his character with those among whom he had lived, on the second Tuesday in October, 1814, he was elected a representative to the fourteenth Congress. Very different was the scene that presented itself on his entrance into the capitol as one of the component members of the second branch of the legislature itself, from that into which he entered when, ten years before, he had appeared as counsel for Judge Chase before the first branch in its judicial capacity. Mr. Jefferson had fallen back into that retirement which, no matter how different might have been the opinion entertained of his official capacity, sat round him with such incontestable grace; and in the seats of Congress were gathered men of another school from those who had assisted in the counsels of the three first presidents. With the ten-league boots of the giant, the thirteen disjointed colonies had stepped forward in harmony and strength; and in twenty years from the period when Washington had taken office, to preside over a doubtful and dangerous experiment, the nation had now a name among the people of the earth, of weight and of distinction. Parties had arisen and striven; the ranks which once had marched up together to a desperate revolutionary conflict, had fallen into internal subdivisions as decidedly marked out in their features as the one great company which once they had composed; three administrations, each present-

ing features antagonistical to that which had followed and that which preceded it, had occupied in turn the seat of government; there had been peace of a period sufficiently protracted to allow for the nurture of every agent which personal ambition or party zeal could create; there had been war, first under the great struggle which led to the emancipation of the colonies, and secondly, after an interval of twenty-four years, under a constitution whose strength to bind a people in the vehemence of invasion, or the paroxysm of defence, had not yet been tried; and amidst every shock which exterior or internal convulsions could create, the liberty of the people and the strength of the government had been unshaken. The warriors and the statesmen of the revolution, as a company, had been gathered to their fathers; and among those in whose hands the ark had fallen—among those of whom at that later period it was the lot to enter on that great heritage to which the energies of their forerunners had been directed—there were but few who had shared in the dangers and toils by which it had been secured. The period of infancy was past, and though those peculiar perils which then existed had been survived in safety, a task as grave and as vital had fallen into the hands of the guardians by whom the ripening manhood of the republic was to be moulded.

Never since that first memorable Congress whose duty it was to adjust the then untried machinery of state, had questions more novel and momentous been crowded together, than those which were presented to the session which opened on December 4th, 1815. The war had closed, with the causes which had induced it. No longer was Christendom staggering under the tremendous collision of the two giant powers of the old world; and by the result of a single campaign, Berlin decrees had been abrogated, orders in council withdrawn, and the commerce of the world once more open to whomsoever chose to engage in it. The moment the peace of Paris was signed, the cause for the war between the United States and Great Britain was at an end; and as an armed neutrality was then no longer required, as each vessel that went to sea was no longer in danger of being searched for the discovery of articles contraband of war, as the ports of Europe were no longer under a reciprocal blockade, the young republic found itself at an instant loosed from the icy thralls of a ten years' embargo, and invited into seas which formerly had been closed by the most insurmountable barriers. A rapid and extensive trade was at once commenced. The southern swamps shone afresh with the golden plumes of the rice-plant; the rich flowers of the tobacco were plaided in rapid luxuriance over prairies once deserted; cotton fields were crowded, after years of indolence, with their fleecy burdens; and even in the north, where till then nothing had been produced except what was necessary for home consumption, the demands of the foreign market bristled the soil with the sharp bayonets of the coarser grains. Like traders who have been separated for a season from the mart where their staples can be bartered, the nations of the earth, as soon as peace was proclaimed, crowded hastily together to exchange the hoarded commodities which a ten years' embargo had piled together in their warerooms. Prices of foreign goods fell wonderfully, for there was no restraint on the free passage of the high seas. The manufacturer sent orders for cotton commensurate with the orders he had himself received for the manufactured goods. The planter found that articles which once were useless from the surfeit of their exuberance, became the medium by which he could obtain commodities which had been

formerly out of the sphere of any but princely fortunes. Had at that moment the prohibition tariffs been lifted off which had been imposed on the great commercial nations for purposes connected with a state of war, each peasant, each laborer, would have been carried from a state of comparative indigence, to a position from which, through the multifarious exchange of labor, he could have commanded all the necessaries and half the luxuries of the civilized world.

But while it became necessary for Congress to take into consideration the removal of those severe restrictions which for years had manacled the limbs and corroded the flesh of the country, a new interest had come into play, which, from its wealth and its power, attracted equal attention. Cut off through the embargo from trade with the great producing nations of the old world, the people had been obliged to provide for their immediate support the most remote articles of consumption. Foreign trade had been half extinguished; the market for the great American staples had almost ceased; the manufactures of France and Great Britain had been stopped at their national ports; and a quarantine had been dropped on the ocean, which prevented all authorized communication with the infected regions. What the most discriminative tariff would have failed to effect, was produced by the paralysis of embargo. Each disjointed nation, like the sundered fragment of a centipede, commenced from the moment of its severance to organize in an inferior extent within its individual boundaries the same complete organic structure which in a grander degree had run through the frame-work of the system when still disunited. A work of labor took place from the plantation, or the farm, to the manufactory, because the foreign market for corn and cotton was at an end, and the foreign supply of manufactures expired by the same limitation. The agricultural classes could once have exchanged their superfluous products with the cutlery of Sheffield, or the cloths of Manchester; but as soon as the embargo fell, no more wheat or cotton was required than was necessary for home consumption, and the discharged laborers were forced to leave the field where their exertions had once been confined, and supply in the workshop or the factory the hasty deficiency which the check on importation had created. Manufactures were carried at a touch from the sterile soil of foreign competition, to the rich hot-bed of embargo. The shuttle and the loom entered upon their noisy oscillations on fields where once nothing had been known but the quiet, uniform growth of the indigenous grains of the north; the old cumbrous vehicles of machinery which had been sufficient for all requisite purposes, in the former phases of the nation, gave way to the sleek and nimble shafts of the steam-engine; and the floating, exterior population, the men who, without a strong attachment to any branch of industry, are willing to seize on that temporarily most profitable, deserted in a trice the weather-beaten ranks of the agriculturists, and took their place in the liveried phalanx of the factory. Such was the state in which peace found the country; and no matter how questionable was the policy of fostering to unnatural luxuriance manufactures which would always be underbid abroad, it was clear that to lift up at once the damper of prohibition would be ruinous. One half the capital of the country was involved in the manufacture of articles which would be driven from the market by foreign competition; and though it was maintained, in the first place, that by the continuance of the restrictions on foreign staples, the consuming classes were obliged to pay in an

increased degree for whatever was gained by the manufacturers; that the protected interests themselves, in the second place, were subjected to violent and ruinous fluctuations; that the course of commerce, in the third place, was checked so far, that the demand from abroad for our own productions ceased when the foreign trade was prohibited; and that, fourthly, the countries whose productions were thus excluded from our market retaliated by excluding ours from their own: it was admitted that for the present an immediate removal of the protectivé duties would lead to consequences both disastrous and unnecessary. It would be easy to prepare the shock and weaken the blow by a gradual descending tariff. It would have been unjust to have thrown the manufacturers out of the window, but it was fair to take them slowly down stairs; and it was on the ground of a gradual and methodical reduction from the embargo to a system of future equal ad valorem duties, that the tariff of 1816 was carried through.

With all the members from Pennsylvania but two, with the great mass of the representation from the northern and middle states, with the whole South Carolina delegation but one, and with nearly one half that of Virginia, Mr. Hopkinson formed part of the majority of eighty-eight to fifty-four, which, on April 27, 1816, insured the passage of the tariff bill. That he spoke on the occasion more than incidentally, cannot be discovered by the meager reports which the newspapers of the day afforded. With a subject of equal, perhaps greater interest, his attention had been occupied since the opening of the session: and as a leading member of the committee on a uniform national currency, of which Mr. Calhoun was chairman, it became his duty to assist in the task of restoring to the country, as far as governmental action could restore it, the blessing of a sound and equal circulation. On January 8, 1816, Mr. Calhoun, after consultation with Mr. Dallas, then secretary of the treasury, reported with the consent of a majority of his colleagues,—of all, it is believed, with the exception of Mr. Macon, who acted but for a short time on the committee, and Mr. Hopkinson,—the bill to incorporate the subscribers to the Bank of the United States.

Had the statesmen who presided at the construction of the late Bank of the United States been able to see the melancholy fate which was to meet that ill-omened institution,—to see its portals crumble before one generation passed through them, its dome fall in ponderous ruin upon the thousands who had taken shelter within its shades, its capital squandered, its name dishonored, its governors disgraced,—had they been able to see that a few years later, like the Mississippi scheme and the South sea bubble, it would be ranked among those colossal engines of fraud which were framed by the cunning of the few, and fed by the credulity of the many,—they would have dropped in haste the stone with which the edifice was to have been commenced, and rather would they have left to others the seats they then held, than that through their agency a disaster so terrible should be fastened on the republic. But few there were, who in a natal day so splendid as that which ushered in the Bank of the United States, were able to press home the reflection that where no man was responsible, no man could be secure. By the advice of a president who once had pronounced it unconstitutional, by the agency of a cabinet most of whom had bitterly opposed it, by the exertions of statesmen to whose principles it had stood in diametrical opposition, it

had been chartered on the ground that so signal would be the remedy it afforded, it would be unjust and unpatriotic to admit into computation the items of individual principle or of party consistency. The sacrifice was made; and thirty years afterwards the lesson was taught, that in those great primary rules which have been laid for the governance of the moral universe,—in the deduction of the theorist, no matter how refined, or the calculations of the economist, no matter how subtle,—more truth is to be found by far than in the dictates of temporary convenience, or in the promptings of local interest.

In that great debate which preceded in the house the passage of the bill, Mr. Hopkinson took a leading part. Standing on the committee which reported the charter next to Mr. Calhoun, he became in some measure the leader of the opposition; and though every personal influence which could be enlisted was brought to bear against him,—though it was pressed on him that as the site of the bank was in Philadelphia it would greatly benefit Pennsylvanian commerce, and that as unconstitutionality was not the objection in his mind, he would be insulting his constituents should he oppose the bill,—he continued resolute in his opposition from first to last, never flinching in his post, and both in committee and in the House maintaining that the charter proposed a hazardous innovation on the laws of property, and an unjust interference with the workings of trade. "He was sorry," he said, in a hastily reported argument on the cutting down of the capital, "to find the plan now proposed so different from that simple character he approved, as to determine him not to give it even his feeble support. He cautioned the House not to be too hasty in acting upon the present subject; to weigh it well, and coolly to consider it. We all feel the present evil, said he; and a state of suffering is not favorable to deliberation. The late war had been a tremendous shock to all the institutions of the country, which had suffered in all its interests, and in none more than in its financial concerns. Could it, he asked, have been reasonably expected, as had been suggested, that on the return of peace the evil in this respect would have been immediately remedied? No, he said; great evils require a slow remedy. In this young nation, with its vast resources and solid wealth, *the remedies would come of themselves, in a great degree, if we have patience to wait for them:* at least, he said, let us not by our rashness destroy all hope of remedying the evil."

It appears to have been customary for the reporters of those days to select for presentation such passages only as could be reduced within a small and manageable compass. At the close of the extract just given, it is stated "that after some general remarks of this character, Mr. H. then proceeded to discuss the question immediately before the House." The motion pending was on the proposed reduction of the capital, and according to the reporter, Mr. Hopkinson continued: "He was not one of those who advocated a bank beyond the principle of its being a means of aiding the government in its fiscal administration. He advocated not such an institution as an engine of government; in that shape, he said, they should (would) get beyond the power of Congress to establish a bank. He, therefore, argued, that the government ought to have no concern in the stock of this bank; nor, beyond what the value of its custom or business gave it, ought the government to have any control over the bank. There might be occasions when and where, and reasons why, a government should put stock into a bank; *but as an engine of power and*

profit, the government ought to have nothing to do with it. There was great danger, he then argued, in establishing an institution of this kind,—no such engine could be created, much less of this enormous magnitude, without danger—as the most beneficial agents, ill applied, become dangerous and destructive."* The vote on the proposed reduction was 49 to 74; and on March 14, 1816, Mr. Hopkinson's name was recorded in the minority, (71 to 80,) on the final passage of the bill.

Very slight are the records which remain of Mr. Hopkinson's speeches in the House of Representatives. Standing, wherever he was, in the first rank, from his talents, his character, his history,—ready to enter with the natural enthusiasm of his temperament into any labor, no matter how fatiguing, into any exertion, no matter how severe, he was both a working man and a thinking man, and by the energy of his co-operation as well as by the wisdom of his counsel, assisted in those great works of legislation which were achieved during his short congressional career. Even in his latter days, when the chances and changes of seventy years had wearied his frame and rough-cast his spirit with the crust which the efflux of time leaves behind it, no one could look upon him, whether on the bench, or in the lecture-room, or at his own hearth, without feeling that the wise and earnest eloquence which in manhood had marked him, had not abated with his old age. He entered into public life at a period most critical,—into a House which of all others was the richest in political ability,—and yet even there, when in the speaker's chair sat Mr. Clay, in the meridian of his parliamentary glory, and by his side were Mr. Lowndes, Mr. Sergeant, Mr. Randolph and Mr. Gaston, Mr. Webster and Mr. Calhoun,—he arose in a single session to a level which none had reached except those remarkable men whose elevation had been the result of the concentrated labors of a lifetime. With him, political distinction had been the object rather of temporary impulse, than of permanent ambition. The goal had been sought and won, the fleetingness of the prize had been proved and felt, and at the close of the fifteenth Congress, Mr. Hopkinson left the House of Representatives to seek that repose in the quiet of his country home, which had been denied him in the bustle of the capitol.

On the 20th of October, 1828, Mr. Hopkinson, after eight years of retirement from public life, was commissioned by the President of the United States as Judge of the District Court for the eastern district of Pennsylvania. Of his discharge of the duties of that high and responsible station, it is not for us to speak. Fearless under circumstances in which other men might have wavered;† resolute and unflinching in the execution of his official duties; living in an atmosphere to which the breath of corruption could not mount; no one could enter the court-room where he presided without being struck with what singular sweetness he mingled

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* National Intelligencer, report of Feb. 28, 1816.

† "The last instance I shall refer to in this course of the argument," said Mr. C. J. Ingersoll, in the Pennsylvania Convention, "is that of the learned and venerable Judge (Mr. Hopkinson) himself, who, I hope he will excuse my assertion, was never a better, bolder, or more independent judge, than during the considerable period that elapsed between his nomination and confirmation; when his tenure was by sufferance of an antagonist party, just coming into power, with no very great forbearance to political opponents."

the kindness of his disposition with the severe dignity of his office. "The highest call was made upon you," said Judge Baldwin to him in the dedication of his Reports, "to bring into active requisition all the powers of your acute, discriminating mind, your cogent reasoning and sound judgment, as well as the large fund of legal information, acquired by a long and active course of professional experience, in the development and application of the great principle of federal and state jurisprudence." How ably, how honestly, the call was answered, the labors of Judge Hopkinson during fourteen years of judicial service, fully exhibit. In the words applied by him, at the commencement of his judicial career, to Judge Washington, his great colleague and predecessor, which apply, now that the speaker himself has finished his earthly course, so truly to both, to the master as well as the scholar,—He was wise as well as learned; sagacious and searching in the pursuit and discovery of truth, and faithful to it beyond the touch of corruption, or the diffidence of fear. He was cautious, considerate, and slow in forming a judgment; and steady, but not obstinate in his adherence to it. No man was more willing to listen to an argument against his opinion; to receive it with more candor; or to yield to it with more manliness, if it convinced him of an error. He was too honest, and too proud to surrender himself to the undue influence of any man, the menaces of any power, or the seductions of any interests; but he was as tractable as humility to the force of truth, as obedient as filial duty to the voice of reason. When he gave up an opinion, he did it not grudgingly, or with reluctant qualifications and saving explanations; it was abandoned at once, and he rejoiced more than any one at his escape from it. It is only a mind conscious of its strength, and governed by the highest principles of integrity, that can make such sacrifices, not only without any feeling of humiliation, but with unaffected satisfaction.

Once more, in the convention which met at Harrisburg on May 2, 1837, for the amendment of the Pennsylvania constitution, did Mr. Hopkinson remove from the quiet of his official duties, to the more superficial labors of political life. Elected with his immediate colleagues by a great majority from the city of Philadelphia, his talents, his character, his venerable age, threw him at once into a position both lofty and commanding. As chairman of the judiciary committee, he was to bear the brunt of the greatest question submitted to the convention. A judge himself, though utterly disconnected with the judicial tenure as created by the laws of Pennsylvania,—holding his commission under the constitution of the United States, and bringing into play that mature individual experience with which so long a judicial life had invested him,—versed in the details of law, and in the principles of justice by a long and successful practice,—imbued from his position, from his history, from his tastes, with that pure and equal atmosphere in which lived and breathed the great judges of the land before whom once he had pleaded,—he collected in his own person, not only the experience most fitted for the management of a question so grave and important, but the wisdom best calculated to decide it. It was for the struggle which the charge which was intrusted to him would excite, that he had reserved his strength. To crop the luxuriance of legislative power was not the tendency of the age, to rob the executive of his prerogatives had not been proposed by the politician; but on the judiciary, from its defencelessness the most susceptible of attack, from its

remoteness, the most liable to odium, the force of the battle was thrown. Since the constitution of 1789 the judiciary were appointed during good behavior, and though the question of tenure had not been mooted openly before the people, though in the election of members of the convention the point had not been held permanently in view, it was found, when the meeting took place, that the delegates from the west, with but few exceptions, with many of the delegates from the more populous counties on the east of the mountains, felt themselves pledged by their action at primary meetings of their constituents, to vote for the abridgment of the judicial term of office. The cord of party discipline, which on inferior questions had bound the convention so tightly, was dissolved by the approach of a principle so grand as that which the tenure of the judiciary involved. Mr. Sergeant, the president of the convention, was found in the front ranks of the minority with his competitor for the chair, Mr. Porter, a decided political opponent; and in the majority,—among those who were determined at all hazards to bring down the estate of the judicial office from life to a term of years,—were collected not only the mass of one party, but the extremes of the other. On Judge Hopkinson, as chairman of the judiciary committee, fell not only the defence of the old constitution, but the management of the contest, and in a great measure was it owing to his untiring energy, to his admirable talents, to his consummate prudence, that a large number were drawn from the ranks of the reformers, and that a compromise was effected which carried the essence of the principles contended for on the one side, with the aspect of those which were espoused on the other. On the 27th of October, 1837, the majority of the judiciary committee, Mr. Hopkinson at their head, reported the article of the old constitution on the subject of the judiciary without amendment in its chief features. The life tenure of the judges of the supreme and inferior courts was preserved, and though it was well known that a majority of the convention considered itself pledged to cut down the office to a term of years, the committee itself, a majority of it being of a contrary opinion, determined to present the question in its full force by a report which recommended an adherence in full to the old constitution. As chairman, it became Mr. Hopkinson's duty to open the subject before the convention. In a speech which occupied the greater part of two days, which exhausted the principal topics brought forward, with a completeness rarely witnessed in a space so limited, and on a subject so large, he exhibited, with an ability which animates even the meager skeleton which the reporter has preserved, the true grounds on which the independence of the judiciary must rest. Those who stood by him at the time, can never forget the power, the splendid pathos of the appeal with which he opened the discussion. To stand forth from the shackles of party, to toss aside the chains which had been imposed on the free action of the representative, to act firmly on their own unbiassed determination, was the requisition which with an authority well belonging to his age and services, he pressed upon the men who crowded around his seat; and unless, perhaps, some one of those eminent judges who had preserved the integrity of Pennsylvania during the alternate shocks of tyranny and rebellion, had risen from his grave to tell the generation which followed, of the grandeur of the principle they were about to decide, there could have been no testimony adduced of such solemn weight as that which he presented. After dwell-

ing for a few moments on the operation of the proposed amendment on the functions of justices of the peace, he turned to the consideration of the point which lay at the root of the question. Having shown that the life tenure of the English judges had been established as one of the most momentous concessions from royalty that the great revolution had procured; that as long as the office remained under the command of government, judges were removed whenever justice was to be violated; that till the office was made permanent, the liberty and property of the citizens were not secure, he proceeded:

"We see that these 'life-officers,' as they are reproachfully called, are not an aristocratical invention, as has been asserted. If they are odious to the people, and so we have been assured, it must have been for some other reason; there must have been some other means. They are strictly and truly, historically and practically, founded on a democratic, popular principle. Their *object* and effect is, to secure to the people a fearless and impartial administration of the laws; to protect the property and person of every citizen, from the power, usurpation, caprice, and oppression of every department of the government, of the legislature as well as of the executive—from the hostility and cupidity of every other citizen who, from his wealth, his connections, his popularity, or his party influence, may have the power to injure him; and finally, in relation to the government itself, to keep each constitutional power and authority in its right place, directing and preserving a proper, safe, and uniform action in the whole. You have granted to your legislature certain, but not unlimited powers,—they are guarded by wholesome restrictions; so to your executive: but all these guards and restrictions are vain and useless, a mere mockery or delusion, unless you have a third power, *independent of both the others*, to hold them within their prescribed limits. Without this, your legislature would be as omnipotent as a British Parliament, your governor as unshackled as a king. Will you answer that the check will be found in the people, at their elections? This is a plausible and flattering thing, but what is it in practice? What is that remedy worth to the injured, oppressed, and ruined individual, smitten by the lawless hand of power? Alas! it will come too late; it may recognise and condemn the wrong, but it cannot save the victims; it may punish the offender, but cannot recall the violence, or obliterate its consequences. The people can act upon one branch of the legislature but once a year; upon the other but once in four years, and upon the governor but once in three years. What enormities may be perpetrated in these periods! Your constitution may be violated, your citizens oppressed, all the fancied securities of your fundamental laws, of your constitutional restraints, broken down by unauthorized acts of legislation; for the legislature is the most irresponsible, encroaching, ambitious branch of your government. The elections give no protection against these wrongs—no redress for them. You must have a power to *prevent the mischief*, to arrest it on its first movement, and to undo what has been wrongfully done. This practical, efficient, conservative power, can be found only in an independent judiciary; for this it was created. The constitution is its pedestal; it here takes its stand: to the people on one side, it says, respect and obey your constituted authorities, your laws, your appointed agents; submit to the authority which comes from yourselves, to the powers you have created for your own benefit. To these authorities it says, look to your commissions—to the great char-

ter, under and by which you hold your offices; mark and observe the limits that are traced round you."*

We do not pretend to analyze the reasoning or to do justice to the eloquence of a speech which, both in argument and in rhetoric, must strike the observer with attention even in the rude garb which a hasty report has thrown around it. Not content with exhibiting the utility of the structure before him, and displaying the grounds on which it was planted, he drew from the stores of his memory the history, not only of its erection in the state in which he stood, but of the formation in other countries of those edifices on whose model it was built. The principle on which he started was, the absolute independence of the judiciary of every earthly influence; and though, together with the remainder of those who assumed the same ground, he was forced at a subsequent stage to enter into a compromise with the more moderate of the reformers, he resolutely maintained to the close the doctrines he held so essential to the freedom and safety of the people. It was found on the meeting of the convention, that there was a decided majority in favor of a tenure by term of years, and as the friends of the old constitution soon discovered that by themselves they would be in an inefficient minority, they adopted the highest scale proposed by the opposite side of the house, and with the aid of a few of the reformers, established, by a vote of 60 to 48, an amendment which fixed the tenure of the judges of the supreme court at fifteen years, and that of all other judges required to be learned in the law, at ten.

To enter into a full examination of Judge Hopkinson's course in the convention, would be foreign to our purpose. Going there disconnected with any one party, feeling that his own judgment was his only master, instinct with so great a consciousness of the truth of the principles he espoused, that he felt no means to be too laborious, no exertions too engrossing, which would be calculated to advance in the minds of others the doctrines he himself received as right, he fell, as well from his own great merit as from the withdrawal of all competitors, into the front rank of the contest. Old yet not weary, conscious of the accumulated wisdom of fifty years public service, yet not exhausted or disgusted with the sphere which he had surveyed in its valleys as well as in its mountains, there was not a point of moment to which the deliberations of the assembly were directed, in which his counsel was not sought for as the verdict of a man who carried on his head the crown with which three generations had invested it. That same great confidence in the virtue of republican institutions which had nerved him at the first, nerved him to the end. Not tightening his heart-strings as he grew older, not distrusting each new generation that rose up like a mist in the landscape, because in its indistinctness it wanted the durability, the density, or the strength which he had supposed to belong to his own, he was never willing to despair in times of greatest despondency, and always, no matter what might be the temptations of party or the bias of prejudice, carried on the conflict with that same full concession of the honest republicanism of his antagonist's opinions, which he had always claimed for his own. Those who recollect the noble simplicity of his private life, his undeviating purity of morals, his equal and open bearing, his plain and generous hospitality; those who

* Speech on the Judiciary question. Debates of the Pennsylvania Convention, iv. 286, 87.

recollect how honestly, when even in the most unrestricted conversation, he sustained the opinions which he had maintained in youth, in manhood, in old age, can bear testimony most fully to the utter candor and simplicity of his character. Ardent and consistent in his public life, yet without a political enemy; thoroughly imbued with the spirit of the party to which in its lifetime he had belonged, yet still never forgetting that its great boast was, that it displayed the principles of the constitution and no others, he exhibited the rare spectacle of being presented to the Senate for the same high judicial station by two successive presidents of the United States, of the most widely divergent politics. "I am," he said once in the Pennsylvania convention, when in the course of debate the old federal doctrines were dragged on the floor, "I am, and always have been, one of this persecuted, despised party. There are, it is true, but few of us left, but we may claim to be sincere at least, for we have had a long and severe trial, when, *perhaps*, we might have been taken into favor by abandoning our principles. I began with the administration of Washington; I was and am a federalist of that day and school. I have never changed, because as yet I have seen nothing better."* It was during the administration of Washington that his principles were first called into action; and from the grand and splendid model that was then placed before him, he drew the rules which governed him in the long career which followed. It was there that the fountain of his principles was placed; and to the doctrines which were then laid down, on the ample, sturdy, and permanent platform of republicanism on which the first president had planted himself, he rested his full and unswerving faith. "You have seen the attempts of the painter and sculptor to represent his image;"—we are tempted to introduce from the speech just quoted another passage, whose length we know will be excused by its characteristic beauty: "You have read of his achievements, his virtues, his actions, his greatness, on the pages of history, and in oft-repeated eulogies of prose and verse; but I tell you in the sobriety of truth, that none can have a full conception of that wonderful man who has not beheld him as he was. I have seen him standing before the assembled representatives of these United States. I have heard him make his communications to them with that calm and quiet dignity, that power of virtue and truth, which were peculiarly his own. * * I would not exchange my personal knowledge, my bright and proud recollections of Washington, and the great men of his time, honored and trusted by him, for the youth and all the growing prospects and anticipations of the youngest politician in this body. The anticipations of a politician! What are they? Delusions, disappointments, mockeries, all. Let those who are now sailing on the swelling sea of popularity, with flowing canvass and favoring gales, with the desired port in view, but look at the wrecks and ruins that lie on that perilous coast; promises broken, friends betrayed, principles abandoned, and the hope lost for which all these sacrifices were made. If perchance he reach the shore, is he safe? Does he stand on firm ground? By no means; he totters on a moving sand, and is carried off by the next swell of the tide that took him there. I have seen many successions, at short intervals, of these men of the people, these popular leaders, passing from insignificance to power, and back again from power to insignificance. They were heard

* Debates of Pennsylvania Convention.—iv. 305.

of no more, for the name of a fallen politician is extinguished. If it were proper, I could bring to your recollection names which were omnipotent over the spirit of party, who held the wand of Prospero, to raise or allay the storm; who seemed to hold their power so surely, so firmly, that no time or accident could impair it, after running a brief race, supplanted by some new favorite, rejected and scorned. Closing their lives in poverty and neglect, they now lie in forgotten graves. I have known them repent their folly in bitter lamentations, not unmixed with remorse at the sacrifice of their integrity. There are doubtless some of you, who now hear me, who have witnessed, as I have done, the rise and fall of these favorites of the people. You have seen them ascending slowly and painfully, with incessant labor and trembling anxiety, to the desired eminence; resorting to all the arts of low intrigue, and falsely flattering the pride, the folly, the very vices of the people. How hollow and hypocritical was this adulation; how contemptible was the self-degradation! After a short and precarious possession of their power, you have seen them falling suddenly from their high estate, never to rise again."

It was Judge Hopkinson's lot, to reach the confines of life in freedom from those infirmities which form the most melancholy feature in humanity. Those who sat around him on the 7th of January, 1842, when in absence of Judge Baldwin he opened and adjourned the Circuit Court of the United States, will recollect, that though then fourteen years had passed since he had taken his place on that bench, though for fifty years he had been enrolled among the counsel who surround it, his eye was as keen, his voice as clear, his bearing as animated, as when he first filled the judge's seat under the silver oar which formed the emblem of admiralty jurisdiction. For the last time, then, he took leave of the scene, both of his ancient labors, when in days long past he assisted as counsel in the deliberations of the first United States judges, of Judge Iredell, of Judge Chase, of Judge Washington,—whose purity, and learning, and fearlessness, so well he had inherited,—and of his more recent duties, when as judge himself he had done such full justice to the chair in which he sat, and the name to which he succeeded. At eleven o'clock that morning, he fell from his seat in the Athenæum, where he had been for a few minutes; and when a few hours afterwards he was carried to his home, those who pressed round him to catch the last look of a great and good man, saw that on his face the shadows of death had fallen. One week he lingered; and on the 15th of January, 1842, died Joseph Hopkinson, scholar, statesman, judge, with a name on which never calumny had cast a spot, and with a character for truth, for kindness, for true greatness, both of mind and spirit, which never from the memory of his generation can be eradicated.

It is suitable that the Merchants' Magazine should be among those who bear tribute to Judge Hopkinson, for, with the natural generosity of his character, he assisted it in its early struggles, with the wisdom of his advice and the honor of his co-operation. Not here alone, but also in every furrow in that great harvest in which he was called to labor, was he ready at any moment, no matter what might be the sacrifice, to place his hand on the sickle, and to bring to those who were in need that aid which the earnest kindness of his nature prompted. There are two or three into whose hands these pages may fall, who saw him once when travelling far from home, on a bleak October morning, take from his shoulders, rapidly—almost stealthily—a cloak, which for years he had worn, and

throw it on the back of a clergyman just about leaving the stage, with whose scanty clothing, the weather, he thought, might deal roughly; and to such, the recollection will call forward many others which bear witness to the same spirit of sweetness and self-neglect which brought to him the reverent love of those among whom he had fallen. Never downcast by misfortune, never approached by fear, never baffled by difficulty, always hoping under the darkest sky, always moderate under the most glowing, never did he, in times the most gloomy and dispiriting, fail in that true allegiance to his country and to his race, which he had been taught in the first struggles of the republic. "It has not been my lot," we quote from Mr. Walsh, than whom no one understood him better, or valued him more, "it has not been my lot to know a man of sounder principles and sentiments, kindlier dispositions, steadier affections, finer faculties, better culture. If I had ever wavered as an American, his keen, comprehensive, uncompromising patriotism, would have fixed me in the true mood. Of his great abilities and invariable rectitude as a lawyer, political representative, and judge, it would be presumptuous in me to speak now and here. His taste and attainments in literature rivalled his professional merits. He wrote on morals, letters, and the arts, as excellently as he spoke on judicial and political topics: his domestic and social life corresponded in every respect to the public; his position and sympathies at home rendered his constant, liberal hospitality, grateful to the purest feeling. His accomplished mind, observant of all the events, characters, and opinions of the day, was peculiarly qualified to delight, besides instructing, in convivial intercourse, by a strong relish for refined society, a cheerful and vivacious spirit, and a peculiar poignancy of remark and raciness of anecdote. Judge Hopkinson, if adequately traced and exhibited in his special qualities and performances, will enlarge on the natural eye, and take, like his celebrated father, indefeasible rank among the brightest and best examples of American biography."*

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* Great as were the services of Judge Hopkinson as a statesman, as a commercial lawyer, and as an admiralty judge, so extended a view of his life and his times as the present, would fall without the limits of this Magazine, were it not for the consideration, that as his co-operation when living was the greatest honor it possessed, it should be foremost in paying to him, when gone, that tribute to which his memory is entitled. By his "Lecture on Commercial Integrity," (*Mer. Mag. Vol. I. p.* 377,) he laid down, with a boldness as striking as the ability which accompanied it, the true and just foundation of commercial dealings; by his "Examination of the Policy of Usury Laws," (*Mer. Mag. Vol. II. p.* 16,) he exhibited with the clearness and beauty so eminently his own, the history and bearing of the great system of monetary restraints of which he treated; and by the constant and invaluable abstracts of admiralty decisions, both in his own and other courts, with which he regularly honored us, he contributed in a great measure to the extension among the commercial community of that mighty science whose form he had assisted to mould. Whatever belongs to Judge Hopkinson's memory belongs to the mercantile world also; and we feel justified, therefore, in travelling out of the dry and beaten road of our ordinary business, in following him to his grave with those offerings which belong to a man both wise and good.—*Ed. Merchants' Magazine.*

ART. II.—MEHEMET ALI, AND THE COMMERCE OF EGYPT.

THE ancient Egyptians not only extended their authority over distant nations, and established advantageous commercial relations with the neighboring countries; but they entered, occasionally, upon voyages of exploration and discovery, which evinced a spirit of enterprise and intelligence, characteristic of a civilized and an enlightened people.

Twenty-one centuries before the Cape of Good Hope was seen by Diaz, or doubled by Vasco de Gama, Neco II., who was then Pharaoh of Egypt, "studious of military renown, and the promotion of commerce, fitted out a fleet in the Red Sea; and having engaged some expert Phœnician pilots and mariners, he sent them on a voyage of discovery along the coast of Africa. They were ordered to start from the Arabian Gulf, and come round through the Pillars of Hercules, (now the Straits of Gibraltar,) in the North sea, (the Mediterranean,) and so return to Egypt. Sailing, therefore, down the gulf, they passed into the Southern Ocean; and when autumn arrived, they laid up their ships and sowed the land. Here they remained till harvest time; and having reaped their corn, they continued on the voyage. In this manner they occupied two years; and the third having brought them by the Pillars of Hercules to Egypt, they related that they had seen the sun on their right hand; and by these means was the form of Africa first known."*

Were history to receive implicit credence, there can be little doubt that the Egyptians held a direct communication with India at an early period. We are assured† that the Pharaonic arms were successfully borne even to the heart of India; and that the conquests of Sesostris in the Orient, were far more extensive than those of Alexander. This account is corroborated in some degree by the various commodities contributed by the conquered nations to the public treasury of Egypt, which were annually recorded at Thebes, and indicate, by their quality, the countries from whence they were derived.

If the domination of the early Pharaohs of Egypt extended into India, it is by no means improbable that commercial relations were established between the two countries; and that a direct and lucrative trade followed in the track of conquest. Though Wilkinson says: "Whether they had a direct communication with India at the same early period, or were supplied through Arabia with the merchandise of that country, it is not possible now to determine; but even an indirect trade was capable of opening to them a source of immense wealth; and that productions of India did actually reach Egypt, we have positive testimony from the tombs of Thebes."‡

Whatever may have been the commercial relations between Egypt and India previously to the subjugation of the Egyptians by Cambyses, it is pretty evident that the Persians monopolized the most lucrative part of the trade with the East thereafter, until the Macedonian conqueror levelled the walls of Tyre, overran Syria and Egypt, and founded the city of Alexandria.

Having shivered the despotic sceptre of the king of Persia, and com-

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* Wilkinson's Ancient Egyptians, i. 58. † Diodorus.

‡ Wilkinson's Ancient Egyptians, i. 226.

pleted his mighty conquests in the East, Alexander diverted the trade of India from its long habituated track through the Euphrates and the cities of Palmyra, Damascus and Tyre, and turned the golden tide to a more natural channel, through the valley of the Nile. There, with an increasing volume, it continued to flow during the successive reigns of the Ptolemies and Cæsars; augmenting the wealth of Egypt, until Alexandria became, in point of riches, art, learning, and luxury, the second city of the world.

"The principal articles of oriental traffic," says Gibbon, "were splendid and trifling; silk, (a pound of which was esteemed not inferior, in value, to a pound of gold,) precious stones, and a variety of aromatics."

Egypt, long after its conquest by the Saracens, continued to enjoy a large share of the India trade. But, with the gradual declension and final overthrow of that nation, which glittered with the brilliancy of an eastern star during the ages of darkness that overshadowed the kingdoms and principalities of Europe, the commerce of India was conducted through a more circuitous channel; and, finally, passing around the Cape of Good Hope, the greater proportion of it fell, at last, into the hands of the English.

The lucrative and seductive trade of India has ever been an alluring prize, impetuously contested for by the most enterprising and powerful nations of every age. And, as many of them, one after the other, have fallen through the corrupting influences of political intrigue and wealth, it is impossible, perhaps, at this distance of time, to determine how far this golden stream, which has vastly enriched and greatly corrupted every country through which it has flown, may have contributed to their destruction. What this brilliant traffic is destined to become eventually, under the domination of Great Britain, which has already been far more enriched by it than any other nation; or how long the tottering throne of that kingdom will be enabled to withstand the accumulating weight of wealth, arising from this trade, and other sources, which is cankering with deadly poison the morals of many of her subjects of high birth and station, it is quite impossible to predict. But while the desolating arm of British power sweeps relentless over the Indian isles, with an energy and a heartlessness that threatens to bow the ancient empires of the East before its avaricious sway, it is to be hoped that good may come of evil; and that civilization, intelligence, and the blessings of Christianity may succeed the war-stained tread of a proud and grasping nation.

In the prosperous and palmy days of Egypt, when "twenty thousand well inhabited cities" were comprised in the vale of the Nile, she was not only celebrated for her abundance of corn and other agricultural products, but she was rich in flourishing manufactories. Egypt was then, in every sense, a great producing country; and sought, at that period as now, a foreign market for her redundant products. Her arms having extended her influence and authority over most of the then known world,* not only brought immense wealth to the public treasury, in the form of contributions from the vanquished nations, but her commercial intercourse with foreigners, who purchased her corn and manufactures during the judicious administration of her native princes, "increased the riches of

* Wilkinson's Ancient Egyptians, i. 83—163.

the country, and greatly augmented the revenue of that period."* That she supplied Syria and other neighboring countries with corn to a considerable extent, is evident from Scripture.† Indeed, the physical structure of the circumjacent countries declare, at the present day, the necessity that must have ever existed in those countries, while densely populated, for resorting to the fruitful valley of Egypt for the great proportion of their corn. For, while a large part of Greece consists of little else than broken mountains of rock and sterile vales, unsuited to the growth of corn, Asia Minor is better adapted to the culture of the vine and fruits, than wheat; and the swelling hills and winding glens of Syria, though affording a luxurious pasturage for flocks and herds, are comparatively worthless for the production of bread-stuffs; and nearly the whole of Arabia and Libya, together with the country stretching down between Syria and Egypt, are desert wastes of sand.

These countries were also partially, or wholly, supplied with Egyptian manufactures. Solomon, it seems, entered pretty deeply into the yarn‡ trade of Egypt; and, very likely, during his reign, the sale of linen yarn in Judea was a royal monopoly. He also had his chariots and horses§ of the Egyptians; as did also the kings of the Hittites and all the kings of Syria.

The trade of the Egyptians with the Phœnicians must have been to a considerable extent. The Tyrians bought of them their fine linen and embroidery ;‖ and, doubtless, most of their corn.

An early and friendly intercourse was established between the Greeks and Egyptians, which subsisted down to the time of Alexander's invasion of their country. Consequently they received the victorious Greeks with much kindness. They hailed them as their deliverers from the tyranny of their odious Persian rulers, who had violated their gods, desecrated and despoiled their temples, and enslaved the people. It was probably this friendly feeling, mutually felt and expressed, which inspired the confidence of Alexander in the good faith of the Egyptians; and induced him, at once, to enter upon gigantic schemes for the improvement of their country. So mild was the reign of the immediate successors of Alexander, that the Egyptians almost ceased to regret the time when they were governed by their native princes. The gods of Egypt were resuscitated, and the shattered temples were restored with pristine beauty. The arts were encouraged; manufactures and commerce flourished; and many of the spoils of Egypt, abstracted by Cambyses, were returned. The canals and other public works received the vigilant care of government; new and important towns sprung up on the borders of the Red Sea to facilitate the trade with India. Alexandria, with a mixed population of Egyptians and Greeks, at once became the royal residence; the seat of learning and the arts; and, at length, the most commercial city in the world.

Such was the prosperous and happy condition of the Egyptians under the lenient and paternal reign of some portion of the Ptolemaic dynasty. But it was, nevertheless, a remove from that elevation, in the scale of nations, enjoyed by their ancestors. Ever after the Persian conquest, their course was downward. The hand of tyranny and oppression,

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* Wilkinson's Ancient Egyptians, i. 225. † Gen. xli. 57.

‡ 2 Chron. i. 16, 17. § Ibid. ‖ Ezek. xxxvii. 7.

though varied at different epochs, in form and tenacity, ceased not its pressure upon this ill-fated country. The public works gradually went to decay. Thebes, Memphis, Heliopolis and other important cities in the upper country, became almost depopulated; dwindled into neglect; and with their gorgeous temples and palaces, sank, at last, into shapeless heaps of ruins! The ancient race and their peculiar religion perished together. Their splendid tombs have been violated and despoiled; and, while the ancient city of Alexandria is only important as a quarry from whence materials are drawn for new erections, Bernice and other large towns coexistent with it, upon the west coast of the Red Sea, are so obliterated, that scarce a vestige of them remains. Time and the fierce winds of the desert have buried almost every trace of the noble canal that once connected the Red Sea with the navigable waters of the Nile. And when Mehemet Ali entered upon the government of the pachalic of Egypt, all commercial intercourse with foreign nations had nearly ceased; and the policy of the government had long been dictated by an illiberal and jealous spirit of espionage, arrogance, restrictions, and odious exactions.

Volney says, when he was in Cairo in the latter part of the last century, the French residents in that city were "shut up in a confined place, living among themselves, with scarcely any external communication; they even dreaded it, and went out as little as possible, *to avoid the insults of the common people*, who hated the very name of *Franks*, and the insolence of the Memlooks, who forced them to dismount from their asses in the middle of the streets. In this kind of habitual imprisonment, they trembled every instant, lest the plague should oblige them to shut themselves up entirely in their houses, or some revolt expose their quarters to be plundered; lest the chief of some party should make a pecuniary demand, or the beys compel them to furnish them with what they wanted, which was always attended with no little danger." The annual extortions from the French residents in Cairo alone, at that period, amounted to nearly $12,000!

Similar was the condition of all *Frank* residents in Egypt, under Mehemet Ali's *immediate* predecessors. Now they enjoy the protection of the government, and greater privileges in Egypt than the natives of the country. While, in the days of the Memlooks, a stranger in Egypt could only wear the dress of a *Frank* at the peril of his life, no garb is now more certain to insure the respect of the common people than the European costume. This, however, is not the case among the Turks. For their prejudice against the "Christian dogs" is little less bitter and malevolent now than in the days of the crusades; though their poverty and dependency has modified, in some degree, their manner of expressing it.

Mehemet Ali has in contemplation the construction of a railroad across the Itshmus of Suez. Should this project ever be carried into effect, that dreary, disagreeable, and sometimes dangerous waste, might be traversed in three or four hours; whereas, it now occupies, ordinarily, as many days. It is true, the danger from robbers, in crossing from Cairo to Suez, has greatly diminished since the accession of Mehemet Ali to the government of Egypt; yet, even so late as the winter of 1840–41, some travellers from India were met and robbed there by the Bedouins and banditti from the Syrian mountains, whom the English had armed and excited to

revolt against the pacha's government. Formerly nothing was more frequent than depredations of this kind, by the wandering Arabs.

In the winter of 1779, a caravan was plundered a few miles out of Suez, and several of the party perished in the desert. "The caravan," says Volney,* "was composed of English officers, and passengers who had landed from two vessels at Suez, in their way to Europe by Cairo.

"The Bedouin Arabs of Tor, informed that these passengers were richly ladened, resolved to plunder them, and attacked them five leagues from Suez. The Europeans, stripped stark naked, and dispersed by fear, separated into two parties. Some of them returned to Suez; the remainder, to the number of seven, thinking they could reach Cairo, pushed forward into the desert. Fatigue, thirst, hunger, and the heat of the sun, destroyed them one after the other. M. de Saint Germain, alone, survived all these horrors. During three days and two nights, he wandered in the bare and sandy desert, frozen at night by the north wind, and burnt by the sun during the day, without any other shade but a single bush, into which he thrust his head among the thorns, or any thing to drink but his own urine. At length, on the third day, perceiving the water of Berket-el-Hadj, he strove to make towards it; but he had already fallen three times from weakness, and undoubtedly would have remained where he last fell, but for a peasant, mounted on a camel, who saw him at a great distance. This charitable man conveyed him to his dwelling, and took care of him for three days with the utmost humanity. At the expiration of that time, the merchants of Cairo, apprised of his misfortunes, procured him a conveyance to that city, where he remained in the most deplorable condition. His body was one entire wound, his breath cadaverous, and he had scarcely a spark of life remaining. By dint of great care and attention, however, Mr. Charles Magrellon, who received him into his house, had the satisfaction of saving him, and even of re-establishing his health."

Were there a railroad between Cairo and Suez, the route through Egypt would be far more desirable than any other open to the traveller from Europe to India. As it embraces a distance of only about eighty miles of land carriage between Bombay and London, it is generally preferred now, although the steamers upon the Red Sea are small, dirty, and dear; and no little inconvenience and discomforts are experienced by passengers in crossing the desert.

Trade and commerce has revived in Egypt, under the administration of Mehemet Ali, and risen to an importance which is attracting the attention of some of the most intelligent and accomplished merchants in Europe. The exports consisting mostly of articles in the raw state, comparatively little advantage results to the Egyptians from the traffic with other countries, further than a convenient exchange of the redundant products of their soil, for those foreign manufactured commodities requisite to the most ordinary comforts of life. But the opening of this, no inconsiderable, and now *safe* outlet for European manufactures, must be of much advantage to those countries which are extensively engaged in converting the raw material into articles fit for immediate consumption. The manufactories of England and France have already realized important benefits from this traffic; and, were a liberal and enlightened policy, on the part of the European governments, manifested towards the ruler of Egypt, the exchange

* Volney's Egypt, i. 141, note.

of commodities betwixt the agriculturists of that country and the manufacturing population of Europe might be increased, perhaps, until the trade of Egypt, Syria, and Asia Minor, should again assume the commercial activity and importance which it enjoyed in the most prosperous days of Venice, and the other Italian republics.

Egypt is a central point, and communicates easily with every part of the world. The fertility and productiveness of its soil, have been proverbial in every age; and the Turkish empire, though now in a state of barbarism, and rapidly declining into deeper degradation and darkness, comprises some of the fairest and most desirable portions of the world. This deplorable, though surpassingly beautiful country, has not only to contend with the dense darkness that has been gathering with increasing blackness upon it for many centuries, but it has also to struggle against the reprehensible interference of European nations, which, in their settlements of "eastern affairs," seek not for the enlightenment and the increasing moral strength of Levantine nations, but rather their weakness, insignificance, degradation, and dependency.

The principal articles of export from Egypt to Europe are cotton, flaxseed, coffee, indigo, wheat, maize, rice, beans, spices, ivory, gums, senna, and ostrich feathers. Many of the same articles are sent to Constantinople, Smyrna, Damascus, and the larger towns upon the coast of Syria; while almost the only article of export to Arabia is corn.

A lucrative trade, to no inconsiderable extent, is carried on with Abyssinia, Sennaar, and the circumjacent countries, from which the Egyptians receive slaves, ivory, ostrich feathers, gold, gums, tamarinds, senna, &c. in exchange for the coarse manufactures of Europe, such as cotton, linen and woollen stuffs, striped silks, soap, carpets, fire-arms, swords, paper, beads, and other trifling ornaments.

A caravan, from Abyssinia and the interior of Africa, loaded with slaves, ivory, gold-dust, gums, parrots, monkeys, and ostrich feathers, arrives in Cairo every year. Another, "destined for Mecca, sets out from the extremities of Morocco, and receives pilgrims even from the river of Senegal; coasts along the Mediterranean, collecting those of Algiers, Tripoli, and Tunis, and arrives by the desert of Alexandria, consisting of not less than three or four thousand camels. From thence it proceeds to Cairo, where it is united with the caravan of Egypt. They then jointly set out for Mecca, whence they return in about a hundred days. But the pilgrims of Morocco, who have six hundred leagues more to travel, do not reach home till after an absence of more than a year.

The lading of these caravans consists of Indian stuffs, shawls, gums, pearls, perfumes, and especially the coffee of Yemen."*

The principal importations of European products, are plain, coarse and figured muslins, woollen cloth, flannel, silks, crape, velvet, calicoes, shawls, paper, powder, swords, fire-arms, watches, clocks, earthen and glass ware, wire, lumber, hardware, beads, copper and brass ware, &c. From Arabia the Egyptians receive coffee, drugs, spices, and some Indian commodities. Various kinds of embroidered work, shawls, handkerchiefs, amber mouth-pieces for pipes, figs, slippers, tobacco, and carpets, are imported from Constantinople.

The low price of labor, and almost every article of Egyptian products,

* Volney's Egypt and Syria, i. 129.

is remarkable. Wheat is only about twenty to twenty-five cents the bushel; and other products of the soil are correspondingly low. The price for day-laborers, men or women, (one being considered as good in the field as the other,) is from four to seven and a half cents per day!—Mechanics, such as masons and carpenters, realize something more. One half of this trifling stipend is usually paid in corn, and the other in cash.

The Egyptians, ever a prey to cruel, capricious, and oppressive tyrants, stripped and gleaned from year to year, by the tax-gatherers, of almost every thing they possessed, have long since sunk into a degraded mass of mere "hewers of wood and drawers of water." They have no part or lot in any of the important mercantile transactions of the country. Neither have they the talents or the capital requisite to the successful achievement of any considerable commercial enterprise; and they attempt nothing of the kind.

The Arabs and Syrians are equally poor; nor can they boast of a greater degree of talent, or fitness for mercantile affairs. All, alike, seem involved in the same deep degradation; poverty-smitten, and entirely lost to all those high, honorable, and upright feelings, which must ever actuate *successful* merchants in all important transactions.

The Turks, though some of them possess considerable wealth and capacity for business, are, nevertheless, as a body, many centuries behind the age, and lagging further in the rear from day to day. They are a degenerate, indolent, suspicious, sensual race; and, in all respects disqualified for the successful prosecution of large commercial enterprises. The commerce of the east has rapidly declined under their guidance; and it has nearly dropped from their hands. There is little or no encouragement in the belief that they will ever exhibit, under the present organization of Turkish society, any great improvement. Consequently, the pacha of Egypt, a man of much more intelligence and general knowledge of the world, than he is admitted to possess by his English and other European traducers, was not slow to perceive the advantages that are naturally to be derived from the permanent establishment of respectable and wealthy European merchants in Alexandria and Cairo. He has, therefore, encouraged the emigration of enterpising strangers to Egypt, rather than repressed it, as was the policy on which his despotic predecessors acted for many centuries before his time. To many of these merchants, he has granted extraordinary privileges—advantages that are not enjoyed by his own subjects; and, in all respects, the well-demeaned stranger in Egypt is protected in his person and property by the government.

In acting thus, Mehemet Ali has but imitated the policy of some of the wisest and most intelligent of the Pharaonic rulers of Egypt.

Amasis who ascended the Egyptian throne about B. C. 571, and reigned at a period represented as having been most prosperous, both "with regard to the advantages conferred by the river on the soil, and by the soil on the inhabitants, gave great encouragement to foreigners who were willing to trade with his subjects; and as an inducement to them he favored their interests, and showed them marked indulgence upon all occasions."*

The policy pursued by Psamaticus, Pharaoh of Egypt, about B. C. 664, was no less liberal and encouraging towards the Greeks and other fo-

* Wilkinson's Ancient Egyptians, pp. 156, 180, 182, 183.

reigners, than that which governed the conduct of Amasis, and that of Mehemet Ali.

By acting upon principles of liberality towards strangers resident in Egypt, the pacha, with equal wisdom and justice, is enabled, as occasion requires, to avail himself of the use of the greater part of their capital and their continued influence in his behalf. This is of much importance to him, as it facilitates his extensive plans of improvement, his heavy commercial operations, as well as his political advancement in Turkey.

Mehemet Ali keeps the reins of commerce in his own hands; and is the most powerful and extensive mercantile operator in his dominions. This, however much it may have been complained of by certain of the pacha's enemies, excites no surprise in Turkey. It is no novelty for an eastern prince to be extensively engaged in commercial affairs.

Solomon, who enjoys considerable reputation for wisdom and wealth, even to this day, had ships,* and merchants,† and entered pretty largely into navigation and other commercial operations.‡ In Solomon's time, it was something to be a merchant, as well as a king; though it might have required his wisdom and wealth, and the power of a king, to have achieved his commercial enterprises with the success that attended the mercantile operations of the monarch of Judea. He is said to have realized from a single voyage four hundred and fifty talents of gold.§ The "business transactions" of Solomon were, certainly, enormously large and lucrative; yet we do not know that any fault was found with him on that account; particularly, by his own subjects, or the foreigners who, at that period, might have been permitted to reside in his kingdom. We are informed, that he greatly enriched the country, and "made silver in Jerusalem as stones, and cedar trees made he as the sycamore trees that are in the low plains in abundance."‖

But, say his enemies, "Mehemet Ali monopolizes the trade in the products of the soil of Egypt, and regulates the price of many commodities of luxury and convenience, imported from abroad. This is tyranny; an odious interference with ordinary affairs, too oppressive to be borne with composure."

If sensitive minds are so shocked at this "high-handed measure of the *blood-thirsty tyrant*," as he is not unfrequently called by his English friends, and this, too, in an uncivilized country, where there are neither efficient and intelligent native merchants nor capital, what will be said of the monopolies of the emperor of Austria, the pope of Rome, the king of the French, the queen of England, and many other of the monarchs of Europe,—where civilization is made a boast of,—and where there is no want of intelligent native merchants, and capital in abundance? What have the enemies of the pacha to say of these monopolies,—not of the export trade of a few hundred bales of cotton, a few hogsheads of flax-seed, a little indigo, a few thousand bushels of wheat and barley, or other redundant products of their respective countries, but monopolies of *bread, salt, tobacco,* and other necessary articles of daily consumption among all classes of their subjects? These are monopolies of the articles of *home* consumption; an odious and oppressive burden, laid upon

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* 2 Chron. viii. 18.—1 Kings x. 22. † Ibid. x. 28. ‡ Ibid. x. 15.
§ 2 Chron. viii. 18. ‖ 2 Chron. ix. 27.

starving, wretched millions, that a few worthless princes may ride in glass coaches, live in gilded palaces, wasting their miserable lives in corrupting mankind, and in the indulgence of the basest sensual enjoyments!

"It is, however, true," say his traducers, "that the pacha of Egypt is also a monopolist in the articles of *home* consumption."

Indeed, he is; and mark the difference. While European princes monopolize the trade in articles of general consumption, imported from abroad, for the purpose of realizing high prices, and fleecing their subjects, the pacha monopolizes in a similar traffic in order to *reduce* prices, and to bring the articles of necessary consumption, imported into Egypt, within the reach of his subjects.

"The blood-thirsty tyrant," while, in the autumn of 1840 and winter of 1842, the government of England was waging a destructive, though unprovoked, war against him—arming the savage tribes of Syria, and exciting them to suicidal insurrection—destroying the towns upon the coast, and burying thousands of unoffending individuals beneath their ruins—capturing his vessels and injuring him in every possible way,—protected the resident subjects of Great Britain from insult or injury in Egypt, and rendered every facility in his power for the safe and punctual transmission of the English mail to and from India through his troubled dominions!

Let the unprejudiced part of mankind determine who has the best right to the name of Christian in this matter, as well as to the mild appellation of "blood-thirsty tyrant."

The interference of Mehemet Ali in the mercantile affairs of Egypt, amounts to scarcely nothing more than a judicious government control over the import and export trade of the country. His peculiar situation makes it imperative for him to monopolize, to a considerable extent, the export trade; for, without wishing at this time to discuss the question of his right, "legitimate" or otherwise, as may be the case, it is a fact, that he owns nearly the whole of the soil; and the great bulk of the surplus products belongs to him. Consequently, like a shrewd and intelligent man, he controls the foreign market, so far as is practicable, which he is obliged to seek for the disposal of this surplus, from the sales of which, arises almost the entire revenue of the country.

No restrictions are imposed upon the transactions in Egyptian products except on sales effected with a view to exportation; in which case, the sales must be made to his agents instead of the foreign merchant.

A similar state of things existed in Egypt many centuries before she sunk to her present deplorable state of barbarism, ignorance, and wretchedness; and was sanctioned by the people, who were at that period civilized and enlightened.

"The right of exportation, and the sale of superfluous produce to foreigners, belonged exclusively to government, as is distinctly shown by the sale of corn to the Israelites from the royal stores, and the collection having been made by Pharaoh only. And not only was her dense population supplied with a profusion of the necessaries of life, but the sale of the surplus conferred considerable benefit on the peasant, in addition to the profits which thence accrued to the state; and though the government obtained a large profit on the exportation of corn, and the prices received from foreign merchants far exceeded that paid to the peasant, still these

last derived great benefit from its sale, and the money thus circulated through the country tended to improve the agricultural classes."*

This monopoly, as it is called, of the pacha, is therefore no novelty or modern usurpation of Mehemet Ali; nor is it an extraordinary thing to see a prince in the old world in possession and actual *owner* of the soil of as large, or even a larger territory, than is comprised in the whole of Egypt. The English nobility, as well as those of the continental states of Europe, rent their lands to the peasantry after the manner of the pacha of Egypt; though, generally, at a much higher rate.

The monarchs of Egypt, ever since the days of Joseph, perhaps, have held the right of the soil of this country in their own hands. Anciently, "the peasants rented the arable land belonging to the kings, the priests, and the military classes for a small sum, and employed their whole time in the cultivation of their farms. The laborers who cultivated land for the rich peasant, or other landed proprietors, were superintended by the steward or owner of the estate, who had authority over them, and the power of condemning delinquents to the bastinado; and the paintings of the tombs frequently represent a person of consequence inspecting the tillage of the field, either seated in a chariot, walking, or leaning on his staff, accompanied by a favorite dog."*

A similar state of things exists in Egypt at the present day. And, however odious it may appear in the eyes of certain of "her majesty's loyal subjects," scenes not much dissimilar, may be daily witnessed among the peasantry upon the estates of the nobility and rich landholders of England.

Under existing circumstances, it is difficult to conceive what the pacha of Egypt can well do to improve the country and ameliorate the condition of its wretched and inconceivably degraded population, more than he is seduously endeavoring to effect. Oppressed and hemmed in by the combined powers of Europe, as he is, he is certainly doing far more for the improvement of his dominions than was accomplished by his predecessors during many centuries. He has cleared away the rubbish of superstition that religiously repelled all innovation upon long established customs and prejudices, and is desirous to let the light of intelligence and civilization dawn upon the darkness which has long clouded the vale of Egypt in a night of ignorance and oppression. He has invited intelligent foreigners to enter the public service, and has assigned to them important places of honor and trust. He has sent many of the youth of Egypt to England, France, and other states of Europe, to be educated. Some of them have completed their education and returned; and are now engaged in school-keeping, or otherwise occupied in the public service. They are in daily communication with the inhabitants, and can hardly fail to exercise a beneficial influence upon their countrymen. He has established manufactories of various kinds, and endeavored to give employment to his subjects in some of those branches of industry for which the ancient Egyptians were so renowned; but, because his mills, set up in the sands of Egypt, by some renegade English speculators, do not possess all the perfection and finish of the machinery in operation in the large manufacturing towns of Great Britain, and, thus far, have not

* Wilkinson's Ancient Egyptians, 2d series, i. 22, 24. † Ibid. i. 34, 35.

been attended with those lucrative and happy results that have so enriched the spinners of Manchester, John Bull calls him "an old foolish knave" and a "blood-thirsty tyrant!"

The pacha of Egypt is neither a "foolish knave" nor a "blood-thirsty tyrant." On the contrary, he is one of the most enlightened and liberal-minded men in the Turkish empire. And, could he have full scope for the exercise of his genius, unrestrained by the combined powers of European sovereigns, now fearfully arrayed in all their splendor and might against the liberties of mankind, he would do more to regenerate his country, and to sustain it from that total ruin and final dissolution, which, under the present organization of its government, speedily awaits it, than any other man in Turkey, or even all the foreign princes who have affected so much sympathy and regret at its rapid decline.

The government of France might have sustained him in his conquests over Syria and Candia, and had promised to do so. The French *nation* were ready, if necessary, to make the fulfilment of those assurances to the pacha the issue of a general European war. But her rulers, being influenced by the same reprehensible principles that dictated the policy adopted by the interfering powers in the difficulties which existed between the sultan of Turkey and Mehemet Ali, proved faithless to the veteran pacha of Egypt, and humbled France before the world. The conduct of the French government in reference to "the settlement of Eastern affairs," can scarcely appear in any other light than that of dishonor and humiliation. A brave and warlike nation with 600,000 troops in the field, all armed to the teeth—possessing a large naval force—the Turkish and Egyptian fleets, together with all the resources of Egypt and Syria at its command—dishonorably breaks from its sacred assurances given to Mehemet Ali, leaves him a prey to the vindictive tyranny and oppression of the black league of Europe, humbles itself at the scornful feet of England, and, at last, creeps into the black league at the back door!

Shade of Napoleon! Why was that humiliating period in the history of France selected for the restoration of thy long absent ashes to the bosom of thy degenerate country? Why were they not permitted to remain lonely and undisturbed upon that flinty bed, though a stranger's, around which the mighty ocean roars, which thou, in thy early career over the despotic thrones of Europe, so much resembled? Alas! thou, too, became a despotic tyrant—an usurper of the liberties of mankind; and the wrath of heaven fell upon thee, and wasted the splendor of thy ill-exerted power—cursed thee with an exile's death, and a prisoner's grave!

> "A single step into the right, had made
> This man the Washington of worlds betrayed;
> A single step into the wrong, has given
> His name a doubt to all the winds of heaven."

ART. III—COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

RECENT events connected with trade, have given rise to opinions which before were unknown, or had existed only in the minds of those who were regarded as mere theorists, without the ability to reduce to practice. Commercial men have considered their profession as a peculiar and highly proper subject of legislation, if not as entirely the creature of statutory law. This opinion is sustained by the almost unanimous policy of modern times, and hence the extreme reluctance with which men listen to the opposite doctrine. The object of this article is not so much to sustain either opinion, as to trace their origin; yet it may be proper to observe, that the danger lies on the side of too much legislation, rather than too little. A large portion of the legislation of the country is connected with trade. Those who are but partially acquainted with the means by which favorite measures and plans are dignified and rendered important, and finally placed on our statute books, must be aware, that the general utility of them in many instances is exceedingly questionable. Our legislative assemblies are thronged by men, who, having some project to perfect, are sedulous in their efforts to present it in a favorable aspect to those to whom is intrusted the delicate and important duty of making laws. To the efforts of such men, may be attributed the numerous laws which are of no public benefit. Legislators ought to listen to the representations of these persons with great caution. They do not come declaring that such a measure will greatly benefit them, or their friends, but with ingenious declarations of attachment to the public welfare. Now, what is clearly for the public good, would hardly awaken such feelings in such men; patriotism is too rare a quality to be developed in such quantities. The passage of a tariff law or bank charter, affects, in one way or another, the condition of a majority of merchants; and can they, in their efforts, forget themselves in their devotion to the public good? A stable course of legislation can never obtain in our country, where the legislators are so frequently changed by the will of the people. Trade, made dependent on legislation is, therefore, extremely precarious and uncertain. There is no business in which stability is so necessary to success as trade. Hence the propriety of separating as much as possible commerce and law. Their union sprang from the grasping spirit of the monarchs who flourished immediately subsequent to the downfall of the Roman empire. As the advantages and profits of trade became known, it was the policy of Venice, Portugal, Spain, England, and Holland, to divert them from individuals to the public use. This was effected by monopolies, for which a bonus was paid; by charters, reserving to the crown a portion of the profits; and lastly, by a union of civil power and commercial pursuits. The formation of the Portuguese, Dutch, and English companies for trading to the Indies, are notable instances of the latter custom. The rivalries, too, to which modern commerce gave rise, during the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, laid the foundation of that most complicate of all human systems—laws for the protection of trade and labor. The mutual jealousies which the nations of Europe entertained, introduced innumerable plans for the destruction of each other. Their hopes of individual advancement and prosperity, seem to have been in proportion to their ability to destroy a rival. England, adopting the exclusive policy of the

continental states, pursued with ardor a system which promised to impair the commerce of its rivals in proportion as its own was increased.

The first departure in England from the free trade policy was in the year 1337, during the reign of Edward III. In the year 1335, an act was passed permitting free trade; but two years after it was repealed, and it was made felony to carry any wool out of the realm. It was also provided, that no clothes made beyond the seas should be brought into the realm. This was the commencement of the protective policy which England has pursued with constancy for five centuries. It is worthy of remark, that the woollen manufacture has been the special object of attention, yet less proficiency has been made in it than in many other departments. It was also during the reign of Edward III. (1360) that the exportation of corn was forbidden, except to Calais and Gascoign. This act may be justly regarded as the germ of the *corn laws*, which for a long period have been the cause of great agitation, and more than once threatened the existence of the government. Nor have the effects of the system been confined to the kingdom of Great Britain;—they have determined the pursuits, mingled in the prosperity and adversity of the states of Europe and America. By the influence of this single act, the German peasant has been led to learn the use of the spindle and loom, and the citizen of New England has abandoned the plough and the spade to become the tenant of the mill.

In the seventeenth year of the reign of Richard II. (1393) the free exportation of corn was again permitted; but in the reign of Henry VI. (1435) it was provided, that corn being at small price, viz, wheat at 6s. 6d., and barley at 3s. per quarter, may be carried forth out of the realm without license.

In the third year of Edward IV., the first corn law, as the phrase is now understood, was passed. It provided, that corn should not be brought into the realm until it exceeded a certain price. It seems that the agriculturists believed themselves aggrieved by the laws which permitted the importation of grain and prohibited its export. This is one of the great objections to laws for the regulation of trade—that some will suffer by their operation.

The modern system of raising a revenue, and affording protection to manufactures was not discovered, or at least not acted upon, until the first year of James II., when a duty was laid on wine, ale, beer, tobacco, &c.

Protection and revenue, however, as the object of decrees and legislation, were secondary—the primary object having been to supersede their rivals in discoveries, commerce, and manufactures. They were used for the continent of Europe, for the same purposes that armed ships and men were in the seas of the East and West Indies. An act passed in the fourth year of Edward IV. (1464) established this point:—"It is declared, that merchandises from the Duke of Burgundy's countries are prohibited, until English-wrought cloths are received there." Retaliatory laws were then enacted by the various commercial governments of Europe. In the seventeenth year of the same reign it was enacted, that "all merchants, aliens, and victuallers, shall employ their money upon the merchandise of this realm." This law was re-enacted in the third year of Henry VIII.

It is not our purpose to give the legislation of England on matters connected with commerce, but merely to show the origin of the restrictive system.

' The history of ancient commerce, so far as it has come to us, is comparatively free of the restrictions which have encumbered modern trade. In determining the value of legislative restrictions, we are destitute of the benefit of experience, and can only rely on such arguments as are within our reach. We shall endeavor to show, that trade is based on natural laws, and when left to itself will operate to the advantage of the world.

Trade originates in the disposition which all men possess, *to dispose of that of which they have too much, for that of which they have too little.* This we may consider a natural law. It is observed in all countries and among all grades of men. The savage exchanges his valuable furs, gems, gold, and silver, for valueless beads and toys. The necessities of men, again, compel them to engage in trade. If all could consistently produce every thing necessary for use, the inducement for the interchange of values, would be materially lessened. As it is, the tea, sugar, coffee, and fruits, of tropical climates, are joyously exchanged for the productions of more frigid zones. It seems as if the Creator intended trade as one of the natural employments of man, or he would have confined his wishes to the productions of his own locality, or made every part of the world capable of furnishing all within the limit of human desires. Every thing, we may safely conclude, is intended to conduce to the welfare of the human family; yet, without the intervention of trade, each individual must be confined to a small portion of the world's products.

Trade, or an exchange of values, we contend, is a part of the great volume of natural law, which God has published for the inspection and government of his creatures. Now, can it be possible, that it is of such a character, that our true interests require us to alter or amend it? When left unrestricted, we may infer, its blessings will be diffused, as the light, the rain, and the dew, vivifying all creation.

The earth searched, or tilled by the hand of enterprise and industry, is the origin of the elements of trade. The farmer at his plough, the hunter in the forest, the hardy fisherman in the smooth stream, or on the wide ocean, each obeying the great law of nature which prompts all to provide for their own wants, bring these elements within our grasp. The farmer exchanges the product of the field for that of the forest or the ocean. This is trade. Neither conventional nor municipal law is necessary to enable men to engage in it with advantage to themselves and to the world. If, as citizens of the world, rather than as denizens of a town, city, district, or state, we meet all mankind in the markets of commerce, at liberty to exchange our values with whom and for what we please, the greatest possible stimulus is given to industry, enterprise, and skill. But when by human intervention the farmer, the merchant, the mechanic, and the manufacturer, are confined to their several districts, the inducement to effort is materially diminished. What but the hope of gain, could have induced the Portuguese, Spanish, English, and Dutch, to have penetrated unexplored seas and bays, and led them to commence and continue a dangerous traffic with the savages of the East and West Indies? In proportion as commerce is fettered by the restrictions of art, the energies of men are diminished. We need but look to China, for an example in point. Forbidden to trade with other nations, and confined within their own territories, they have ever manifested a degree of imbecility and weakness, unlike the vigor and strength of character visible in the people of those countries where a freer intercourse is tolerated.

The advantage of liberal principles, can hardly be over-estimated in generating feelings of independence and self-reliance. Accustomed to act for themselves in trade, as now in most other kinds of industry, men would soon learn to place confidence in their own calculations, while the absence of law would permit business to act in a natural, and of course, healthy manner.

The *ryot*, in India, is the object of commiseration, because he is compelled to cultivate such grounds, and for such purposes, as his government dictates; yet it is hardly more liberal or just to render the transfer of the soil's products onerous, or to prohibit it entirely.

The people of this country would not permit a foreign government to determine the value of the property they hold, if it were attempted in an open manner; but Great Britain, by her legislation, is continually aiming at this object. Our government does the same. She makes war on the staple interests of this country—she makes war on her manufacturing establishments. Our wheat spoils in our granaries, or remains unpurchased in our storehouses; her paupers starve—her operatives rebel. Amid the contention, commerce ceases to be a high and honorable pursuit, and partakes of the qualities of envy and deception. As trade depends upon the amount of the excess of local production in the world, and as its object is merely to equalize this excess, it is apparent that freedom, in place of restriction, is to be desired.

Art. IV.—RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

The amount of products of various sorts throughout our own Republic, as developed by the statistics that have been recently taken under the sanction of an act of Congress, will hardly surprise those who have closely observed the industrious character of our people, the number of our population, and the resources of our territorial domain. It is scarcely too much to say that this domain, stretching in a broad expanse through various degrees of latitude, and producing abundantly the fruits of a cold as well as a tropical climate, is not exceeded by that of any tract of territory upon the face of the globe, of the same extent, in its capacity of production; and it is in truth remarkable that the measure of products exhibited by these returns has been yielded by a soil, which but a little more than two centuries ago was first opened to the light of civilization. It is also somewhat singular that up to the date of the act ordering the census to be taken, the actual products of the country were known only by the sudden estimates of travellers, or fugitive accounts that could scarcely have been considered authentic, from the desultory mode in which they were obtained, with the exception of those that have been derived by the government, regarding the condition of certain limited departments of those products. Indeed, it but recently pressed itself upon the public mind, that in order to a safe and understanding legislation respecting the various interests of the country, it was most natural and proper to collect the facts connected with the amount of our products, in order to understand thoroughly their aggregate value, as well as the relative proportion borne to each other by their several kinds. It is with a

view of exhibiting, in a brief form, the result of these returns, that we devote the present paper to a consideration of the resources of the country.

It can hardly be denied that one of the most interesting, as well as singular features of our national territory, is the variety of resources that are spread out by the soil, climate, and other natural advantages of its several parts. The rugged configuration of the land in the six states of New England, as well as in a portion of New York, together with the abundance of water power which prevails in those states, as well as the comparative density of their population, render them highly favorable to the existence of all kinds of manufacture that are worked by machinery, and accordingly it is here that we find this branch of industry the most generally and successfully prosecuted. Reaching western New York, we arrive upon an alluvial soil that is highly favorable to the production of the ordinary crops that are produced in the more temperate portion of our own climates, extending in a broad belt that includes the middle states, westward to the banks of the Mississippi. Crossing this belt at the south we reach another belt, whose termini are Florida and Arkansas, yielding the cotton, the sugar-cane, the tobacco, and the rice, besides many of the tropical fruits. The greater portion of this domain conceals within its hills the most valuable sorts of minerals, which may be deemed almost essential to the successful prosecution of the various kinds of manufactures and the trades. Beyond the skirts of our settled territory, and in what is now uncultivated wilderness, are the furs which abound in the greater portion of the Indian territory, besides other articles obtained from the woods, and denominated products of the forest. To these we may add the products of commerce and the fisheries, obtained exclusively by the labor of our seventeen millions of people. It is these four branches of our products, agriculture, commerce, and the manufactures, as well as the wealth yielded by the forest and the fisheries, that comprise the different departments of the statistical returns.

Let us take a brief view of the real value of some of the more prominent products of the country, and we find that this value is now very great, and is likely to be much increased. By the returns, it appears that our mines have yielded two hundred and eighty-six thousand nine hundred and three pounds of cast iron, and one hundred and ninety-seven thousand two hundred and thirty-three pounds of iron, in bars. Coal, the next in point of importance of our mineral productions, has been yielded by our soil to the value of eight hundred and sixty-three thousand four hundred and eighty-nine tons of the anthracite, each ton embracing about twenty-eight bushels, and of the bituminous we have raised twenty-seven millions six hundred and three thousand one hundred and ninety-one bushels. Of domestic salt we have produced six millions one hundred and seventy-nine thousand one hundred and seventy-four bushels, and thirty-one millions two hundred and thirty-nine thousand four hundred and fifty-three pounds of lead, besides other mineral products of less value. Of our agricultural staples, the soil has yielded eighty-four millions eight hundred and twenty-three thousand two hundred and seventy-two bushels of wheat; of oats one hundred and twenty-three millions seventy-one thousand three hundred and forty-one bushels, and of Indian corn three hundred and seventy-seven millions five hundred and thirty-one thousand eight hundred and seventy-five. Of manufactures we pos-

by the statistical returns, which, although perhaps not entirely accurate, present as complete a statement as could, under the circumstances, have been furnished. By a table compiled from these returns, it appears that we have produced during the year ending the first of June, 1840, the products, a statement of which we here subjoin, with their amount.

AGRICULTURE.

Live-stock.

Horses and mules	4,335,669
Neat cattle	14,971,586
Sheep	19,311,374
Swine	26,301,293
Poultry of all kinds—estimated value	$9,344,410

Cereal Grains.

No. of Bushels of Wheat	84,823,272
Barley	4,161,504
Oats	123,071,341
Rye	18,645,567
Buckwheat	7,291,743
Indian corn	377,531,875

Various Crops.

Number of pounds of Wool	35,802,114
Hops	1,238,502
Wax	628,303½
Bushels of Potatoes	108,298,060
Tons of Hay	10,248,108¾
Hemp and flax	95,251¾

Tobacco, Cotton, Sugar, &c.

Pounds of Tobacco gathered	219,163,319
Rice	80,841,422
Cotton gathered	790,479,275
Silk cocoons	61,552½
Sugar made	155,100,809
Cords of wood sold	5,088,891
Value of the produce of the Dairy	$33,787,008
Orchard	$7,256,904
Gallons of Wine made	124,734
Value of home-made or family goods	$29,023,380

The next topic to which we would advert, as nearly akin to that of agriculture, and bearing the same relation to it as the fine to the useful arts, is the science of horticulture; and it is doubtless a source of gratification to perceive, that the subject has been deemed of sufficient importance as a national interest, to demand a separate department of the census. This interesting branch of husbandry is one, which, while it is useful as a productive labor, is also improving to the mind, in the highest degree. The partitioning and laying out of grounds into tasteful forms, having reference to the beautiful as well as to the useful; the fashioning of well-gravelled walks, and shaded beds; the cultivation of fruits and flowers, and the decoration of well-apportioned parterres, with all the adornments which providence in lavishing its bounties upon the earth has supplied; while they are attended with a chastening of the moral sentiments, are also cal-

oulated to awaken emotions of gratitude to their Author. For the cultivation of this species of horticultural improvement, we enjoy in our own country ample motives and means, not only in the richness of our soil, but in the variety of scenery which nature supplies.

We are gratified, we again repeat, that the government has directed its attention to horticultural science, so far as to make it an item of their returns; and we believe that the public attention will be turned to the subject in coming time, from the gradual and improving taste of the country; that the aspect of our rural scenery will be improved in the tasteful embellishment of those grounds which now slumber like the vineyard of the sluggard, choked with briers and thorns, or if cultivated at all, are improved without reference to any principle of taste. We perceive, that the tables to which we have so often referred, give the value of the produce of the gardens and nurseries, as follows:—

Horticulture.

Value of produce of Market gardeners	$2,601,196
Nurseries and florists	$593,534
Number of men employed	8,553
Capital invested	$2,945,774

Another species of production, the amount of which is embraced in the census, is denominated the products of the forest; within which term are included all those products that are obtained in a raw state, both from the forest itself and the wild animals with which it abounds; and they are divided into the several articles of lumber, tar, pitch, turpentine, rosin, pot and pearl ashes, skins and furs, ginseng, and all other productions of the native wilderness. The most of these articles, it is well known, constituted very important staples of export during our early colonial dependence, and before the condition of the country or the means of the people would warrant any very marked attention to agricultural enterprise; lumber having been exported in a considerable quantity to the West Indies, under British auspices, and furs and ginseng forming prominent articles of commerce in the English and French colonies, both at the east and west; the former constituting the principal trade between Canada and France, during the first years of the Canada colonization. Although the cultivation of more productive branches of enterprise, has diminished their interest in our own country to minor importance, still, it is even now of no inconsiderable amount. This diminution, however, is more sensibly felt in the single article of furs and peltries, probably, than in any other, in consequence of the lessening of the number of the fur-bearing animals, from which the trade during the existence of the early French, English, and American fur companies derived their profits, as well as from the monopoly of the Hudson Bay Company, that has of late years advanced into the domain that was formerly roamed by the American traders, driving them, by a species of underselling and commercial intrigue, away from their ancient hunting grounds. Of the amount of this species of product, and also its value, we are enabled to give a full return from the census.

Products of the Forest.

Value of lumber produced	$12,943,507
Barrels of tar, pitch, turpentine, rosin	619,106
Tons of pot and pearl ashes	15,935½

Skins and furs—value produced..... $1,065,869
Ginseng and all other productions of the forest—value..... $526,580
Number of men employed..... 22,042

We now arrive at the subject of the manufactures which are produced in our own country—a subject which it must be admitted has increased to enormous magnitude, when we remember the short period since it was first commenced. The manufacturing system of the country, receiving national protection during the first Congress, yet deriving its origin as a system from the mind of Alexander Hamilton, about the year 1791, has now swollen to an amount that is second to that of England alone; and it embraces all those various sorts of products which are wrought by machinery, as well as by the trades. And what a field of successful enterprise is unfolded to us in this department of American labor, not merely in those manufactures which are wrought out within the walls of our factories, but the various products of the trades, and by the numerous kinds of handicraft work!

It is only about fifty years since the manufacturing system of the country began to attract to itself any considerable degree of the public attention; we can scarcely fail to be surprised, that besides the one thousand two hundred and forty cotton factories, and the one thousand four hundred and twenty for the manufacture of wool, may be added mixed manufactures to a considerable amount. To these, we superadd various other manufactures of machinery, hardware, cannon, and fire-arms; those of the precious metals, tobacco, hats, caps, bonnets, leather, the tanneries, saddleries, &c.; soap and candles, distilled and fermented liquors; those of various metals, granite, &c.; bricks and lime, powder, drugs, medicines, paints and dyes, glass, earthenware, sugar, chocolate, paper, cordage, musical instruments, carriages and wagons, mills, ships, furniture, and houses, of all of which the returns exhibit a very great amount.

There is something in the genius of our people, the spirit of our institutions, or the local circumstances in which we are placed, that has directed the public enterprise into those channels of effort which have referred more particularly to the useful rather than the ornamental; and it is here that the mechanical industry of the country has wrought out its most effective triumphs. The vessels which are constructed in our dockyards, it is admitted on all hands, are, in their model, beauty of finish, and speed, superior to those of the same class that are launched upon the waters of the most advanced nations of Europe; and it is equally well known, that our machinists have supplied some of the principal governments abroad with railroad engines, and despatched two beautiful steamships, on special contract, to the Russian government. So, also, in the inferior articles of manufacture, such as domestic implements, and those of the different trades, and the various sorts of hardware, it is found, that our own enterprise and skill have succeeded in fully equalling those of like sort that are manufactured abroad. The same is the case with the various manufactures of the country that are worked by machinery. Although we have not equalled the products of foreign looms in the manufacture of woollen and cotton, we need not be informed, that notwithstanding the difference in the price of labor between our own sparsely settled country and the over-crowded nations of Europe, we have recently made rapid advances in the production of the various articles of manufacture,

and bid fair to become soon a formidable rival to the manufacturing interests of Great Britain; even now competing with them in low-priced cottons in the foreign markets. We here subjoin a list of the articles which are the products of our manufacture, compiled from the census.

Manufactures.

MACHINERY, Value of machinery manufactured..... $10,980,581
Number of men employed..... 13,001
HARDWARE, CUTLERY, &c., Value of manufactured..... $6,451,967
No. of men employed..... 5,492
NUMBER OF CANNON AND SMALL-ARMS,
Number of Cannon cast..... 274
Small-arms made..... 88,073
Men employed..... 1,744
PRECIOUS METALS, Value manufactured..... $4,734,960
Number of men employed..... 1,556
VARIOUS METALS, Value manufactured..... $9,779,442
Number of men employed..... 6,677
GRANITE, MARBLE, &c., Value manufactured..... $2,442,950
Number of men employed..... 3,734
BRICKS AND LIME, Value manufactured..... $9,736,945
Number of men employed..... 22,807
Capital invested in preceding manufactures..... $20,620,869
WOOL, Number of fulling mills..... 2,585
Woollen manufactories..... 1,420
Value of manufactured goods..... $20,696,999
Number of persons employed..... 21,342
Capital invested..... $15,765,124
COTTON, Number of cotton manufactories..... 1,240
Spindles..... 2,284,631
Dyeing and printing establishments..... 129
Value of manufactured articles..... $46,350,453
Number of persons employed..... 72,119
Capital invested..... $51,102,359
SILK, Number of pounds reeled, thrown, or other silk made.... 15,745½
Value of the same..... $119,814
Number of males employed..... 246
females and children..... 521
Capital invested..... $274,374
FLAX, Value of manufactures of flax..... 322,295
Number of persons employed..... 1,628
Capital invested..... $208,087
MIXED MANUFACTURES, Value of produce..... $6,545,503
Number of persons employed..... 15,905
Capital invested..... $4,368,991
TOBACCO, Value of manufactured articles,..... $5,819,568
Number of persons employed..... 8,384
Capital invested..... $3,437,191
HATS, CAPS, BONNETS, &c., Value of hats and caps manufactured..... $8,704,342
Value of straw bonnets manufactured..... $1,476,505

HATS, CAPS, BONNETS, &c., Number of persons employed..... 20,176
Capital invested..... $4,485,300
LEATHER, TANNERIES, SADDLERIES, &c.
Number of tanneries..... 8,229
Sides of sole leather tanned..... 8,463,611
upper do do 3,781,868
Number of men employed..... 26,018
Capital invested..... $15,650,929
All other manufactures of leather, saddleries, &c..... 17,136
Value of manufactured articles..... $33,134,403
Capital invested..... $12,881,262
SOAP AND CANDLES, Number of pounds of soap..... 49,820,497
Number of pounds of tallow candles.. 17,904,507
Number of pounds of spermaceti and wax candles..... 2,936,951
Number of men employed..... 5,641
Capital invested..... $2,757,273
DISTILLED AND FERMENTED LIQUORS.
Number of distilleries.....10,306
gallons produced..... 41,402,627
breweries..... 406
gallons produced..... 23,267,730
men employed..... 12,223
Capital invested..... $9,147,368
POWDER MILLS, Number of powder mills..... 137
Pounds of gunpowder..... 8,977,348
Number of men employed..... 496
Capital invested..... $875,875
DRUGS, MEDICINES, PAINTS, AND DYES.
Value of medicinal drugs, paints, dyes, &c..... $4,151,899
Value of turpentine and varnish produced..... $660,827
Number of men employed..... 1,848
Capital invested..... $4,507,675
GLASS, EARTHENWARE, &c.
Number of glass-houses..... 81
cutting establishments..... 34
men employed..... 3,236
Value of manufactured articles, including looking-glasses..... $2,890,293
Capital invested..... $2,084,100
Number of potteries..... 659
Value of manufactured articles..... $1,104,825
Number of men employed..... 1,612
Capital invested..... $551,431
SUGAR REFINERIES, CHOCOLATE, &c.
Number of sugar refineries..... 43
Value of produce..... $3,250,700
chocolate manufactured..... $79,900
confectionery made..... $1,143,965
Number of men employed..... 1,355
Capital invested..... $1,769,571
PAPER, Number of paper manufactories..... 426

PAPER, Value of produce..... $5,641,495
all other manufactures of paper, playing cards, &c..... $511,597
Number of men employed..... 4,726
Capital invested..... $4,745,239
PRINTING AND BINDING, Number of printing offices..... 1,552
Number of binderies..... 447
Number of daily newspapers..... 138
weekly newspapers..... 1,141
semi and tri-weekly..... 125
periodicals..... 227
men employed..... 11,523
Capital invested..... $5,873,815
CORDAGE, Number of rope walks..... 388
Value of produce..... $4,078,306
Number of men employed..... 4,464
Capital invested..... $2,465,577
MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS, Value produced..... $923,924
Number of men employed..... 908
Capital invested..... $734,370
CARRIAGES AND WAGONS, Value produced..... $10,897,887
Number of men employed..... 21,994
Capital invested..... $5,551,632
MILLS, Number of flouring mills.....4,364
Barrels of flour manufactured 7,404,562
Number of grist mills..... 23,661
saw do. 31,650
oil do. 843
Value of manufactures..... $76,545,246
Number of men employed..... 60,788
Capital invested..... $65,858,470
SHIPS, Value of ships and vessels built..... $7,016,094
FURNITURE, Value of furniture made..... $7,555,405
Number of men employed..... 18,008
Capital invested..... $6,989,971
HOUSES, Number of brick and stone houses built..... 8,429
wooden houses..... 45,684
men employed..... 85,501
Value of constructing or building..... $41,917,401
ALL OTHER MANUFACTURES NOT ENUMERATED.
Value..... $34,785,353
Capital invested..... $25,019,726
TOTAL CAPITAL invested in manufactures..... $267,726,579

Another department of the census is devoted to local commerce; and in its returns we are presented with an interesting field of investigation. The active agents of the commerce of a country, or those whose business it is to buy and to sell the several products of foreign or domestic growth, comprise a large body of men respectable by their numbers and their influence. The system of commerce, as a full commercial system, governed by certain well-defined and fixed principles, and by uniform rules, in all its relations and dependencies, reaches through the entire circle of the

interest of a country, and involves the most prominent matter of national legislation. The relative position and local circumstances of foreign countries, their productions, the laws by which they are governed, as well as the international regulations which control the carriage of merchandise from port to port, are each calculated to call forth the keen discernment of mercantile men, and their strongest powers of forecast and judgment. We may judge somewhat of the amount of this interest in our own country by the statistical returns, which we here subjoin :—

COMMERCE.

Number of commercial houses in Foreign trade	1,108
Commission business	2,881
Capital invested	$119,295,367
Retail dry goods, grocery, and other stores	57,565
Capital invested	$250,301,799
Lumber yards and trade	1,793
Capital invested	$9,848,307
Number of men employed	35,963
Internal transportation—no. of men employed	17,594
Butchers, packers, &c. do	4,808
Capital invested	$11,526,950

Another interest which occupies a separate department of the returns is the fisheries ; an interest, that from the earliest period has been one of great value, employing a large number of men, and maintaining a considerable portion of the coastwise trade. Besides the enterprise that has been pursued along our coast, and the neighboring shores, taking the fish of a smaller sort, the whale fishery has, as our readers well know, been a source of great wealth to some of the principal towns along the seaboard of New England, and it now involves a large number of men, and a considerable amount of capital. We shall content ourselves by merely giving the aggregate amount of the returns of this interest, as developed by the census, which is, of course, exclusive of that large quantity of fresh fish of the smaller size, that is consumed in the country, and taken in the interior and surrounding waters :—

Fisheries.

Number of quintals smoked or dried fish	773,947
Barrels pickled fish	472,359½
Gallons Spermaceti oil	4,764,708
Whale and other fish oil	7,536,778
Value of whale-bone and other productions of fisheries	$1,153,234
Number of men employed	36,584
Capital invested	$16,429,620

The next and last department of the table of statistical returns to which we shall refer, is devoted to the exhibit of the productions of the mines ; such as iron, lead, gold, and other metals, coal, salt, granite, marble, and other stone ; and we are here ushered into a view of the mineral resources which lie hidden within the recesses of our own soil. We were before aware, indeed, that Pennsylvania contained large masses of the most valuable coal, and that Missouri had even its iron mountain ; that Wisconsin, and Illinois, and Missouri, and Iowa, were invested with the richest mines of lead, and that salt was produced in large quantities in the interior of

Western New York, and even tinctured the springs of some of the more western states; that granite and marble, and even gold, which furnished a reservation in the charters of the early navigators, an article that was supposed of right to belong to the crowns from which they issued, all slumbered in the soil: but of the exact amount of these several metals produced, we could only learn from such returns as we have here presented to us. The single articles of iron and coal are of the greatest value to the country, and could hardly be dispensed with among us, where so much machinery is used, both upon our lines of inland transportation, as well as in our various manufactories. Of the much sought for article of gold, it appears that the states of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, and even Illinois, yield it in greater or less amount. We give the following returns of the census, which develop the proportions of the different sorts of minerals produced, as well as the capital invested in working the different mines:—

MINES.

Iron.

CAST, Number of furnaces	804
Tons produced	286,903
BAR, Number of bloomeries, forges, and rolling mills	795
Tons produced	197,233
Tons of fuel consumed	1,528,110
Number of men employed, including mining operations	30,497
Capital invested	$20,432,131

Lead.

Number of smelting-houses, counting each fire, one	120
Number of pounds produced	31,239,453
Number of men employed	1,017
Capital invested	$1,346,756

Gold.

Number of smelting-houses	157
Value produced	$529,605
Number of men employed	1,046
Capital invested	$234,325

Other Metals.

Value produced	$370,614
Number of men employed	728
Capital invested	$238,980

Coal.

ANTHRACITE, Tons raised, (28 bushels each,)	863,489
Number of men employed	3,043
Capital invested	$4,355,602
BITUMINOUS, Number of bushels raised	27,603,191
Men employed	3,768
Capital invested	$1,868,862

Domestic Salt.

Number of bushels produced	6,179,174
Men employed	2,365
Capital invested	$6,998,045

Granite, Marble, and other Stone.

Value produced	$3,695,884
Number of men employed	7,859
Capital invested	$2,540,159

It may be safely alleged that our own country possesses much larger natural advantages than those of Great Britain, not only in the extent of our territory, and its lines of inland communication by rivers and lakes, and the fertility of our soil, but in the various mineral products which every year is developing to the light; and it is equally clear that considering the period in which our enterprise has been permitted independent action, we have made much more rapid advances in the various departments of national industry, being second only to that empire in commercial and manufacturing power, and we have advanced in this respect within the lapse of only a little more than fifty years of self-government.

The census, whose aggregate we have given, shows us the value of our own industry and the important bearing which it must exercise upon our commerce. The report of the secretary of the treasury for 1840, exhibits the value of the domestic exports of the United States during that year at one hundred and thirteen millions, eight hundred and ninety-five thousand, six hundred and thirty-four dollars, all the produce of our own country. Of this value there was of the produce of the sea, three millions, one hundred and ninety-eight thousand, three hundred and seventy dollars; of the forest, five millions, three hundred and twenty-three thousand and eighty-five dollars; of agriculture, eighteen millions, five hundred and ninety-three thousand, six hundred and ninety-one; besides that of cotton to the amount of sixty-three millions, eight hundred and seventy thousand, three hundred and seven dollars; that of tobacco, nine millions, eight hundred and eighty-three thousand, nine hundred and fifty-seven dollars; and other agricultural products amounting to one hundred and seventy-seven thousand, three hundred and eighty-four dollars. Of our manufactures, we have exported to the amount of six millions, four hundred and twenty-five thousand, seven hundred and twenty-two dollars, besides of articles of manufacture not enumerated, to the amount of four hundred and three thousand, four hundred and ninety-six dollars; and seven hundred and forty thousand, three hundred and five dollars of all other articles. Taking this estimate as accurate, we may judge somewhat of the existing and increasing influence exercised by our own domestic products upon the commerce of the country and their reciprocal bearing.

We doubt not that the policy that is to be pursued respecting the various productive interests of the nation, as well as its finance, will be worthy of their magnitude and importance and of the character of our government. It has been our design in this article merely to exhibit the amount of the various interests of the nation, as developed by the census, and not to enter into any party discussion regarding the policy that is to be pursued concerning them. We trust, what we doubt not will be the case, that the facts exhibited by the returns will be thoroughly studied by our legislators, and that they will establish a frame of policy upon them, beneficial alike to the agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial interests. It has been our design, as we before remarked, merely to set forth the resources of our country, as developed by the last census, a noble commentary upon the industry of the people, the spirit of our government, and a source of well-grounded and honest pride to every genuine patriot.

ART. V.—LAWS RELATIVE TO DEBTOR AND CREDITOR.

XVI.

IOWA TERRITORY.

ORGANIZATION AND JURISDICTION OF THE COURTS.

THE judicial power of the territory of Iowa is vested in a supreme court, district courts, probate courts, and in justices of the peace. The supreme court consists of a chief justice and two associate judges, any two of whom form a quorum, and who hold a term at the seat of government, on the first Monday of January annually. The judges of the territory hold their offices during the term of four years. The said territory is divided into three judicial districts, and one of the judges of the supreme court resides in each district, and holds a district court twice in every year in each county composing his respective district. The said supreme and district courts, respectively, possess a full chancery as well as a common law jurisdiction.

PROCESS.

All writs and process issued by any court in the territory, must run in the name of the United States, and bear test in the name of the presiding judge, and be sealed with the seal of the said court. Suits for the collection of debts are commenced, either—

1st. By summons; or,

2d. By capias ad respondendum; or,

3d. By attachment.

By a *summons*, which the clerk of the court issues on the filing of a *præcipe* by an attorney, or on the filing, by any person or persons, of his, her, or their account, single bill, promissory note or due-bill, the defendant is commanded to appear and answer the complaint of the plaintiff on the first day of the term.

In all actions founded on contract, and in actions of trespass for taking personal property, and for trespass upon lands, a *capias ad respondendum* may be the first process, provided the affidavit of the plaintiff, or some credible person, containing the following particulars, be first filed with the clerk who is to issue the same.

1st. The affidavit must state, (either absolutely, or as deponent has been credibly informed and verily believes,) that there is an indebtedness of the defendant to the plaintiff, and that at least a certain amount (naming it) is due.

2d. That the defendant has removed his property (or a portion thereof) from the territory, or concealed, or otherwise disposed of the same, with intent (in either case) to defraud his creditors.

3d. That the defendant has within the territory, money, or other property, or things in action, which cannot be reached by writ of attachment, and that he is about to abscond, with intent to defraud his creditors, as defendant verily believes.

Every defendant arrested under a writ of capias ad respondendum, may be discharged upon executing to the sheriff of the county a bond, with sufficient security, in a penal sum equal to the amount mentioned in the writ, conditioned that the defendant will appear at the return day of the said writ, and not depart without permission of the court; which bond

shall be filed with the clerk who issued the writ. If the defendant appear agreeably to the conditions of the bail bond, he may at any time thereafter, on motion, be discharged from custody, and the securities on his bail bond released from liability by filing *special bail*, in a penalty equal to the amount endorsed on the *capias*, conditioned that if judgment in the action be rendered against the said defendant, he shall pay the amount thereof, or surrender himself on the issuing of a writ of execution against his body.

When any action founded on contract shall have been commenced, or shall be about to be commenced in the district court of any county in the territory, a writ of *attachment* shall be issued by the clerk of the said court, upon an affidavit being filed in his office, containing the following requisites:

1st. It must state that something is due from the defendant to the plaintiff, and as nearly as practicable the exact amount.

2d. It must state, that (as defendant verily believes) the said debtor is a non-resident of the territory, or that he is in some manner about to dispose of, or remove his property, with intent to defraud his creditors, or that he has absconded, so that the ordinary process of law cannot be served upon him.

Such writs of attachment, however, shall not issue in any case, until there shall, also, be filed in the office of the said clerk, a bond, with sufficient sureties, to be by him approved, conditioned that the plaintiff shall pay any damages which may be awarded to the defendant, in any suit which said defendant may bring on the said bond, for damages sustained for a wrongful suing out of such writ of attachment.

Upon affidavit filed in the office of the clerk who issued the writ of attachment aforesaid, at any time before the return day of the said writ, stating that, as defendant verily believes, a certain person (naming him) has property of the defendant in his possession, or that he is indebted to the said defendant, provided such indebtedness is not for daily labor, the said clerk shall issue a summons to such person as garnishee, reciting the above facts, and requiring him to appear at the time and place when and where the said writ of attachment is to be returned. The said garnishee shall stand accountable to the said plaintiff for all the property or credits of the defendant in his hands at the time of the service of the writ, or which may come into his hands after the service of the said writ.

Creditors whose demands amount to not more than fifty dollars, and not less than five dollars, may sue their debtors by attachment before a justice of the peace in the following cases:

1st. Where the debtor is not a resident of, nor residing within the county.

2d. Where the debtor has absconded, or concealed himself, or so absented himself from his usual place of abode, that the ordinary process of law cannot be served upon him.

3d. Where the debtor is about to remove his property out of the county, so as to hinder and delay his creditors.

4th. Where there is good reason to believe that the debtor is about fraudulently to remove, convey, or dispose of his property, or effects, so as to hinder or delay his creditors.

Any creditor wishing to sue his debtor by attachment as aforesaid, must file his affidavit, or the affidavit of some credible person, stating, that the

defendant is justly indebted to him in a sum above five dollars; and also stating the belief of the affiant in one or more of the facts, which entitles the plaintiff to sue by attachment.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

When any *foreign* bill of exchange, which may be drawn for any sum of money, and expresses that value has been received, shall be duly presented for acceptance or payment, and protested for non-payment or non-acceptance, the drawer or endorser thereof, due notice being given of such non-payment or non-acceptance, shall pay said bill, with legal interest, from the time such bill ought to have been paid, until paid, together with the costs and charges of protest.

Any bill of exchange drawn upon any person, or body politic or corporate, out of the territory, but within the United States or their territories, for the payment of money, and expressed to be for value received, shall be duly presented for payment or acceptance, and protested for non-payment or non-acceptance, the drawer or endorser thereof, due notice being given of such non-acceptance or non-paymeet, shall pay said bill, with legal interest, from the time such bill ought to have been paid, until paid, and five per cent damages in addition, together with costs and charges of protest.

PROMISSORY NOTES.

All promissory notes, bonds, due-bills, and other instruments of writing, made by any person, body politic or corporate, whereby such person or persons promise to pay any sum of money, or articles of personal property, or any sum of money in personal property, or acknowledge any sum of money to be due, or articles of personal property to be due, shall be taken to be due and payable to the person to whom the said note, bond, bill, or other instrument of writing is made; and any such note, bond, bill, or other instrument in writing, made payable to any person, shall be assignable by endorsement thereon, under the hand of such person, and of his assignee, in the same manner as bills of exchange, so as absolutely to transfer and vest the property thereof in each and every assignee successively; and any assignee may institute and maintain the same kind of an action for the recovery of any such note, bond, bill, or instrument in writing, as might have been maintained by the original payee or obligee.

Every assignor, or his heirs, executors, or administrators, on every such note, bond, bill, or other instrument in writing, shall be liable to the action of the assignee thereof, or his executors or administrators, if such assignee shall have used due diligence by the institution and prosecution of a suit against the maker or makers of such assigned note, bond, bill, or other instrument in writing; but if such suit would be unavailing against the maker or makers, then such assignee may recover against such assignor, as if due diligence by suit had been used.

EXECUTION.

Real estate sold under execution in the territory may be redeemed by the defendant at any time before the expiration of twelve calendar months from the day of sale, by re-paying to the plaintiff the purchase money, and ten per cent in addition; and any person who may be a judgment creditor of the said defendant at the expiration of the said twelve months,

may within three calendar months thereafter redeem said real estate, by paying to the plaintiff in execution the amount for which said land was sold, and ten per cent added thereto. The following property is exempt from sale under execution:—One cow, one calf, one horse, or yoke of cattle, five sheep, five head of hogs, household and kitchen furniture not to exceed in value thirty dollars, one stove fixed up in the house, one bed and the necessary bedding therefor for every two in the family, farming utensils not exceeding in value fifty dollars, one months' provisions for the support of the family, all mechanics' necessary tools, and all private libraries.

CONVEYANCES.

All deeds and conveyances of lands, tenements, or hereditaments, situate, lying, and being within the territory, which shall hereafter be made and executed in any other territory, state, or country, may be acknowledged, proved and certified according to, and in conformity with the laws and usages of the territory, state, and country in which such deeds or conveyances were acknowledged or proved, and they shall be as effectual and valid in law, as though the same acknowledgment had been taken, or proof made within the territory, or in pursuance of the laws thereof. The execution and delivery of all deeds and conveyances in the territory are considered *prima facie* evidence of their execution and delivery, and the party denying the same must do it under oath.

ART. VI.—LIGHTS AND SHADOWS OF MERCANTILE LIFE.

III.—THE MERCHANT IN HIS STUDY.

"'Tis not unknown to you, Antonio,
How much I have disabled mine estate
By sometimes showing a more swelling port
Than all my means would grant countenance."

MERCHANT OF VENICE.

COLONEL BEERS retired to his study, where, indeed, for more than a week he had spent the greater part of every night. Here he resolved to obtain, if possible, a calm and dispassionate view of his situation, and to seek whatever of fortitude or hope might yet be within his reach. The fearful anxieties with which his spirit had wrestled ever since the cheerless dawn, breaking tardily and heavily upon his sleepless pillow, were for the most part silenced, if not subdued. The overburdened spiritual energies had well-nigh exhausted themselves. The severe mental conflict of the evening, heightened, as we have seen, to almost insufferable intensity by the remorse engendered by the scene around him, was over for the present; for the voice of love, mild and full of hope, had mingled in the wild uproar, and the strong spirit of the *man* within him, started up at the unwonted call, and, feeling that there was yet something in life worth struggling for, had conquered. Poor man!—in what a sea of agony had he been swimming, and with what stern energy had he been buffeting with its waves of fire, for weary days and wearier nights, with no mild guiding-star to beam upon the almost shoreless despair, while the winds, prophetic of ruin, were moaning and howling in the distance! But

now, whether it was the natural calm which sometimes follows intense excitement, or whether the influence, the words, the prayers of his daughter had opened to him an avenue of comfort amid the gloom, he felt strangely tranquil in mind;—nay, strong enough to look the many-headed fiend that haunted him in the face, and ask what his real power over him might be.

He sat down, without agitation, before his writing-desk, and applied himself steadily to the study of a schedule of liabilities and assets which he had drawn up with his own hand not many days before. While thus employed, we may be fairly justified in saying a few words to our readers concerning his character and situation.

Julian Beers was a proud man; but his pride, in the best sense in which the world employs the designation, was an honorable emotion. It was, indeed, the pride of station, of reputation, of wealth; but it was based, in intention at least, upon strict integrity of character. He would have shrunk from the thought of a mean and dishonorable action, as from the touch of a serpent. He knew no softer name for dishonesty, and he would have scorned the wealth which is to be won in doubtful or base courses of business. As a merchant, therefore, he was a man of principle, not surely of the highest and noblest sort, but still a man of principle. For years he had toiled manfully in his profession, and had won a considerable fortune—as fortunes go—and an enviable name. He at length found himself in the first class of his order, and his pride was abundantly gratified, by the respect and confidence which everywhere greeted him.

The pride of wealth, as wealth increased, grew upon him, and assailed him with many temptations, from which the man of an humbler sphere is exempt. That exorbitant thirst for splendor, luxury, and display, which characterizes communities like ours, in times of great zeal, or fancied prosperity, had led him to aspire to the distinction which his family now occupied in the fashionable world. The gayest season might have been dull if the popular family of Colonel Beers had not been among the first to lead and to sustain it. It is true, that misgivings sometimes haunted his breast, that the fortune invested in enterprises which fire and flood, the hazards of trade, the prostration of confidence, or a reckless touch upon the springs of the political machine, might at any time seriously impair, if not destroy, ought not to be lavished as freely upon the baubles of worldly show and pleasure as if it were the income of a millionaire. But the tide rolled on, glittering, swelling, ever higher, ever stronger; and once on, it requires a stouter heart and rougher hand than his to get out. Much, indeed, was sacrificed to mere vulgar glitter, much to the veriest puppetry of gilt and pasteboard—much to a despicable sort of vanity which oftentimes brings its own sting along with it. Yet, although Colonel Beers felt this to be the case, he excused himself with the thought that it was a state of things which he had no concern in causing, which he could not mend, and which must be tolerated with the greatest share of complacency at command.

But this was not the most dangerous rock, which threatened to make shipwreck of his safety. There was another far more fatal, because wholly unseen, in the bosom of that wide whirlpool of reckless adventure, into which society had been drawn almost beyond recall. The old, cautious, regular movements of trade, had given place to a novel and more enticing system. The spirit of speculation was abroad, and its influence

was felt in every department of the business world. An inflated currency gave encouragement to every kind of scheme for making haste to be rich —ruinous importations to supply fancied demands, which even the extreme of extravagance could not render real, successive creations of imaginary wealth by means of bubbles, which, though of air, became enormous ere they burst; these, and a thousand features of the times like them, which will suggest themselves to the recollection of every reader, were too truly prophetic of the future. But the spirit of bold enterprise entered the minds of even the wisest and most cautious, and amidst the universal ferment caused by the simultaneous operation of so many puffing machines, stoical, indeed, was the mind, and cold the heart, which could refuse to hazard something.

Along with an undue expansion of his regular business, Colonel Beers had ventured largely in one of the most brilliant and promising speculations of the day. These were the foundations on which he had latterly essayed to build the temple of his fortune, and he now felt them swelling and sinking beneath his feet, while the edifice itself, tottering to its fall, threatened every moment to crush him. Far and wide over land and wave, to the east and west, to the north and south, the chain of his correspondence extended, and his semi-annual importations flew from his warehouses, as it were, on the wings of the wind. Heavy discounts, and long credits, rendered easy and general by the fatal facilities which the banks afforded everywhere to everybody, sustained for a long time the bright delusion, and all hearts beat high, and all tongues waxed eloquent with the hope of splendid fortunes, realized almost by the toss of a copper. But by and by, alas! the sober certainty of protested notes, and extensive country failures, startled men into suspicion and reflection. In proportion as facilities were withdrawn, the fall of the million jobbers, scattered "thick as leaves" everywhere over the land, became accelerated. Then commenced the crash in the distant cities; then in those more near; then the metropolis itself began to ring with harsh iron-tongued rumors of her proudest houses; confidence gave place to universal caution and distrust, and the dark leaden clouds rolled heavily over the firmanent, charged with the black and sulphurous artillery of the tempest. Black, indeed, almost rayless was the firmament, which, for a short period, had hung over Julian Beers. A bolt or two had already scathed the greenness of his fortune; every moment might bring the unmitigated fury and the overthrow. Had his adventures run only in the regular channel of his business, he might, perhaps, have defied the storm—he now felt, at least, that in that case there was a possibility that all his engagements might have been protected. But that speculation!—

The originators of it, many of them at least, had saved themselves; some of them had realized fortunes by it. But Colonel Beers, deceived by its unusual popularity, had entered into it as it approached the crisis. That crisis soon came. It was as destructive as it was unlooked for in its movements, and he now stood among the vanishing bubbles of the exploded air castle. To him this was the finishing blow, and he felt it to be so. In the pressure of his difficulties, before he could realize the probability of others still more severe, he had been led to adopt expedients which in the ordinary course of business he would have repudiated. But a desperate man of the world, who, in his selfishness, can scarcely realize the sacredness of his trusteeship—the man of the world, who is not sus-

tained by those highest and truest principles which nerve the mind enlightened by religion, and quickened by religious feeling, will oftentimes clutch with eagerness after the very phantoms which are luring him to his ruin. In the protracted agony of his situation, he went on, day after day, making the most serious sacrifices in order to sustain himself. But such sacrifices generally render the eventual ruin only the more certain and deadly. And such the sacrifice proved to be in his case.

His daughter, the mild, meek, beautiful Emily, had read much of what was in his heart on that fearful night, but she had not read the whole. There was *one purpose* there, not suddenly inspired, but the result of many, many hours of agony, of which he dared not even then be fully conscious himself. It had floated in ghastly indistinctness through his mind, and the effort to drive it away, though strong at first, had become feeble with every visitation, until at last he almost hugged it to his heart as his speediest refuge. What that purpose was, it matters not now. Suffice it to say that in those still and lonely morning hours, it came not back, for the holiness of prayer had laid the fiend to rest.

He sat for a long time absorbed in the study of the documents before him, and when he arose, it was with a cheek and brow of deadly paleness. He paced the floor, at first with a step somewhat languid, then rapidly and with some show of agitation. He sat down again and smote the paper with his open hand, and exclaimed, "*All*, ALL scattered to the winds of heaven! Great God! can I be calm—can I live under a state of things so dreadful—I, Julian Beers, with the cold civility, with the sneer of the world upon me? And for this I have toiled—for this—poverty, want, and wretchedness with my helpless, miserable family!"

His feelings became too strong for words. He leaned upon his clenched hands, and—we will not say wept, for the manhood of Julian Beers was strong—but the convulsive movement of the chest and the workings of the countenance told that even tears might be a relief.

But there was no help for it. Ruin was upon him "as a strong man armed," and his spirit must bend before it, or break. The proud, fallen merchant was alone with his own heart, and with his God. The world, as yet, knew not of his overthrow; but the next morning, or, perhaps, the next, would ring it into the greedy ears of the great idol he had worshipped. He felt the terrible agony under which he had almost sank once that night, rolling in upon his soul. He feared to remain any longer alone. With a confused brain and tottering step he sought his bed-chamber, and lay down, hopeless of sleep, by the side of one whose dreams were scarcely less dreadful than his waking thoughts.

In the mean time, how fares it with Mr. Ockham? We shall glance at his situation in our next number.

Commerce, as well as life, has its auspicious ebbs and flows that baffle human sagacity, and defeat the most rational arrangement of systems, and all the calculations of ordinary prudence. Be prepared, therefore, at all times, for commercial revulsions and financial difficulties, by which thousands have been reduced to beggary, who before had rioted in opulence, and thought they might bid defiance to misfortune.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

Perhaps there never was a time in our commercial history when so great an amount of capital remained unemployed in the busy season of the year, as during the past few weeks. Great difficulty has been experienced in placing money so as to yield any income whatever. It has been offered by capitalists to those large moneyed houses in Wall-street, accustomed to receive deposites on interest, or rather, as it is expressed, to take in money "at call," at reasonable rates of interest, at 5 per cent per annum; and but small quantities have been used at that rate, from the impossibility of employing it in a manner that would yield a profit greater than that. This arises from many causes, the most prominent of which are—1st, the want of confidence in stocks even of those states in which hitherto the greatest reliance has been placed; and, 2d, of the greatly diminished demand for money in mercantile operations. The discredit of stock securities grows mostly out of political causes. Contending parties have of late years made financial and commercial legislation an instrument of furthering their own views, by making large promises of relief and protection to the people on the one hand, and of throwing discredit on their opponents on the other. This disposition has been gradually developed in the progress of events, until either party has become radical in its views of fiscal affairs. The one has been driven back upon direct taxation, rigid economy, and a specie currency; while the other avows a policy of almost unlimited indirect taxation, liberal expenditure, and that worst of all currencies, a government paper currency. The line between these parties has been more distinctly drawn in New York, than elsewhere; but may give a true indication of the general position of affairs, because it is from New York that the whole Union takes its cue. From New York emanated the bank mania, which spread over the Union with such rapidity, in the few years preceding the disasters of 1836–7. The success of the Erie canal was made, in all other states, the argument for immense public works, which have plunged many of the states in debt, defalcation, and dishonor. The same fever reacting upon New York, caused the projection of many new public works of vast magnitude, as well as the enlargement of the Erie canal, at a cost far above what any reasonable trade on its bosom can or ought to be burdened with. All these undertakings pushed the debt of the state, in 1841, to an extent at which it became evident that to complete existing works, on the plan on which they were commenced, would carry it to an amount greater than could be met by the avails of any reasonable increase of business on the works in progress of improvement and construction. Here a line was drawn. One party were in favor of prosecuting the works at any and every hazard, and to depend upon the income to be derived from them for the payment of the interest and the gradual extinguishment of the principal. This policy, however, appeared so hazardous, especially when the trade of the whole union was laboring under depression, and other states had been forced even to the verge of repudiation by the embarrassments created by following a similar course, that a prominent member of the party, avowing it in the legislature, seceded from it, and professed himself unwilling to increase the debt. The opposite party, being in the ascendancy, not only decided not to increase the debt, but to levy a tax of one mill on every $100 of valuation, to raise $600,000 in order to meet any possible contingency that might arise to jeopardize the prompt fulfilment of the faith of the state. They then authorized the borrowing of $3,000,000, at 7 per cent interest, to pay all floating claims, and to prevent any dilapidation of the unfinished works. The proceeds of the tax were sacredly pledged to the payment of the interest on this debt, and the redemption of its principal. On these terms the money was obtained at par, when no other state, not even the federal

government, could borrow money at any rate. The last sum, of $250,000, was taken recently at par. In 1841, before the adoption of these means, the stocks of the state of New York fell to exceedingly low rates; but immediately on their promulgation the market value of the stocks began to rise, until the latter part of August, at which time it became apparent, from the manner of electioneering, that the election was to turn upon the financial policy of the state. The party in power showed a disposition to persevere in their measures of the last session of the legislature; while their opponents hoped to gain power by throwing the odium of a tax upon their antagonists, and by flattering the people that the vast schemes of public improvement would be continued through the further use of the credit of the state. At this point capitalists began to pause. A change in the state financial policy during the present disastrous state of the national credit would be fatal to the interests of all those connected with New York stocks. The threatened repeal of the mill tax was considered as a species of repudiation, inasmuch as it was upon the faith of that tax that the state had borrowed on its 7 per cent stock. This view of the case, although it did not induce any extensive desire to sell, prevented investments. Men of wealth had rather let their funds lie idle for 30 days, than run the risk of a disastrous loss. The prices of all other state stocks, as well as those of most New York banks, would seriously feel the effects of a new cause of distrust in the empire state. The federal government itself is in nearly as bad a condition in regard to its finances as most of the states, and for nearly the same reasons; viz, that party politics have seized upon its financial affairs, in order to make them a stepping stone to political aggrandizement. The expenditures of the treasury have been pushed with an unsparing hand, while part of its revenue was for a season diverted, under the pretence of relieving the states therewith, and the remainder jeopardized by the enactment of a tariff, which savors far more of protection and prohibition than of revenue. The expenditures, by these means, being in excess of the revenue, the debt has swollen in 18 months from about $5,000,000 to over $31,000,000; and the treasury being in arrears with its creditors, has no credit to negotiate the loan authorized. Its treasury notes are taken for temporary investment by banks and moneyed men, because by new enactments they now bear interest, when not paid after maturity, and are also receivable for customhouse dues. The laws in relation to the existing revenues of the department are open to repeal or modification the moment that a new party comes into power. All these combined causes have operated against investments in stocks.

The demand for money for commercial purposes has greatly decreased from what it formerly was, for many reasons. The prices of commodities are less than half of former rates, requiring therefore a volume of currency diminished in a similar ratio. The quantity of money has indeed been reduced by the explosion and curtailment of many of the banks of the Union, but perhaps not in a degree proportioned to the fall in prices. The decline in values has been gradual since 1839, and may be illustrated in the following table of quantities, according to the census of that year, and the current prices in the New York market:—

	1839.			1842.	
	Average quantity produced.	*Price.*	*Value.*	*Price.*	*Value.*
Cotton.....lbs.	450,000,000	0 14	$63,500,000	0 08	36,000,000
Flour.....bbls.	22,000,000	9 50	209,000,000	4 00	88,000,000
Wool.....lbs.	50,000,000	0 50	25,000,000	0 30	15,000,000
Total.....			$297,500,000		$139,000,000

This gives a difference of $158,500,000 in the quantity of currency required for the interchange of three articles only of agricultural produce. It is true, that a large portion of the flour and wool is consumed by the growers; what proportion, it is difficult to

arrive at exactly. The proportion of currency requisite, however, holds good, and extends to all other articles; showing, that from this cause alone, a great diminution in the quantity of money required for business purposes would be experienced. The fall in values is brought about, in the first instance, by the stagnation growing out of the shock given to the banking system, which has heretofore been the instrument of commerce, and enhanced by the abundant crops of almost all articles of agricultural produce. The extreme low prices which now exist, say $4 50 for flour in the New York market, at this season of the year, can, even if sales are effected, leave but very little surplus in the hands of farmers and planters, either to pay old debts or to purchase supplies; hence, a decreased demand and fall of prices, is apparent in most domestic and imported articles. The diminished trade and reduced profits, become apparent in cities in the small dividends of the banks, and the shrinking value of rents and real estate. In the city of New York this latter result is made fearfully apparent in the relative value of real and personal estate as assessed, for a series of years, as follows:—

ASSESSED VALUE OF REAL AND PERSONAL ESTATE IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK, WITH THE AMOUNT OF TAXES AND POPULATION.

	1830.	1835.	1836.	1839.
Real estate.....	—	$143,732,425	$233,742,303	196,940,134
Personal estate.	—	74,991,278	75,758,617	69,942,296
Total.....	$125,388,518	$218,723,703	$309,500,920	$266,882,430

	1840.	1841.	1842.
Real estate.....	187,121,464	186,350,948	176,489,012
Personal estate	65,721,699	64,843,972	61,294,559
Total	$252,843,163	$251,194,920	$237,783,571

	1830.	1835.	1836.	1839.
Taxation.....	$509,178	$850,000	$1,085,130	$1,352,832
Population.....	203,007	256,007	—	312,710

	1840.	1841.	1842.
Taxation.....	$1,376,280	$1,394,136	$1,500,000
Population	322,000	335,000	343,900

In six years, from 1830 to 1837, the value of property rose 150 per cent, and has fallen back 60 per cent. Real estate in particular, is now scarcely 20 per cent higher than in 1835, and is now 24 per cent less than in 1836; and the assessments are still high for the actual value of the property, as measured by its productiveness. Low as values have fallen, there is as yet no confidence that the lowest points have been touched; hence, but little disposition to embark in mercantile enterprise. Moreover, the recent tariff law enacted, has by no means tended to promote present activity in trade. Without taking into view, in any degree, its ultimate influence upon the welfare of the country, we have only to look to its effect upon passing events. Its first operation was to cause prices, of those articles on which heavy duties had been laid, to rise rapidly. That is to say, importers, taking into view the present state of affairs throughout the union, saw but little opportunity of being able to continue the imports under the advanced duties; hence, they asked more for the stocks on hand. This operating upon a sluggish business, growing out of very low prices of produce, served only to check operations; while, on the other hand, prices of domestic articles, under the increasing quantities and diminished foreign demand, have been falling. The following are two tables—the first, showing comparative prices of imported articles at New York and Boston; and the other, the rates of domestic produce at similar periods in three leading cities:—

PRICES OF CERTAIN ARTICLES IN NEW YORK AND BOSTON BEFORE AND AFTER THE PASSAGE OF THE TARIFF.

	BOSTON.		NEW YORK.	
	August 20.	*October* 8.	*August* 20.	*October* 8.
Old Sable Iron	88 00 a 90 00	— a 95	89 a 90	97 50 a 1 00
Swedish	75 a 78	78 a 80	79 a 80	80 a 85
Scotch Pig	22 a 25	27 a 30	23 a 24 50	27 a 29 50
Molasses, Cuba	14 a 18	18 a 20	17 a 19	19 a 20
" P. R.	16 a 19	18 a 23	18 a 20	22 a 23
Wine, Malaga	33 a 34	36 a 40	28 a 30	33 a 35
" white, Lisbon	40 a 60	40 a 70	—	—
" Oporto	65 a 1 75	1 50 a 2 00	—	—
Catalonia	28 a 35	35 a 40	28 a 30	30 a 40
Madeira	2 50 a 3 00	3 00 a 3 50	50 a 1 75	80 a 3 00
Brandy, Otard	1 40 a 1 50	2 00 a 2 25	1 30 a 1 70	1 75 a 2 50
" Rochelle	1 00 a	1 50 a 1 60	90 a 95	1 50 a 1 55
Rum, St. Croix	80 a 95	95 a 1 05	60 a 65	75 a 85
Gin, Scheidam	70 a 80	90 a 95	— a 95	— a 1 12
" Crown	90 a 95	1 00 a 1 12	—	—
Sugar, Havana white	7 a 8 50	8 50 a 10 00	7 50 a 9 75	8 a 9
" " brown	5 25 a 6 50	6 a 7 50	4 a 6 75	5 50 a 7 25
" Brazil, white	6 a 7	7 50 a 8 00	— a 7 25	7 a 7 25
Cloves	26 a 28	29 a 30	26 a 27	28 a —
Salt, Turks Island	1 87 a 2 00	2 a 2 12	24 a 24 50	29 a 30

PRICES OF LEADING AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS, AUGUST 10, AND OCTOBER 15, 1842.

	AUGUST 10.			OCTOBER 15.		
	Boston.	*N. York.*	*N. Orleans.*	*Boston.*	*N. York.*	*N. Orleans.*
Flour, Southern	6 25	6 00	4 75	4 62	4 37	3 50
" Western	6 00	5 75	4 50	4 50	4 25	3 00
" via New Orleans	5 75	5 75	—	4 50	4 37	—
Wheat	—	1 17	90	—	92	50
Oats, Southern	28	28	30	25	24	25
Beef, mess	9 25	8 00	9 00	8 00	7 50	8 50
" No. 1	7 00	—	5 00	6 00	—	5 00
Pork, clear	10 50	9 50	8 00	10 50	8 37	8 00
Lard	7	7¼	7	8	7½	6
Rice	3 00	3 00	4 50	2 50	3 00	4 25
Wool, American	37	32	12 00	37	30	12 00
Lead, pig	3 50	3 50	3 00	3 75	3 50	3 00

The first table shows an aggregate average advance of 12 per cent in the imported articles; and the last an aggregate average decline of 16 per cent: making a difference to the agricultural producer, between what he sells and that which he buys, of 28 per cent. So violent a fluctuation in the short space of a few weeks, could have no other effect than that of paralyzing the markets, and enhancing the indisposition to employ capital in new enterprises.

The imports of foreign goods have greatly diminished in this posture of affairs, and the homeward-bound packet ships have, even at this usually busy season, but very trifling freights. Some of our finest packet ships have returned to port with scarcely 10 per cent of the freights they brought some two or three years since at this season of the year. Several of them, from Liverpool, have come in with scarcely five hundred dollars freight. In the winter of 1839, a year indeed of large imports, three packets out of Liverpool for New York were lost, with the following cargoes and freights:—

	St. Andrew.	*Pennsylvania.*	*Oxford.*	*Total three Ships.*
Value cargo	1,200,000	1,300,000	520,000	3,020,000
" freight	12,500	13,500	3,250	29,250

Here was an average of over nine thousand dollars' freights; and this fall the average will be but a very small per cent of that sum.

This immense falling off in import business, has produced a sensible effect upon foreign bills of exchange, which probably have never been lower than now, at this period of the year, which is that just previous to the forwarding of the new crops, and when the export of the precious metals takes place, if at all.

RATES OF STERLING BILLS IN NEW YORK, FROM JULY TO NOVEMBER, FOR A SERIES OF YEARS.

	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
July.....	7½ a 7¾	20 a 22	7½ a 8	8½ a 9	7½ a 8	8½ a 8¾	6¼ a 6¾
August...	7¼ a 7½	19 a 20	7½ a 8	9 a 9¼	7¾ a 8¼	8¾ a 9	6½ a 7
September	7½ a 8	20 a 21	9 a 9¼	9¼ a 10	7¾ a 8½	9¼ a 9¾	7½ a 8½
October..	8 a 8½	14 a 15	10 a 10¼	9 a 9½	8¼ a 9	9¾ a 10¼	7 a 7¼
November	8¼ a 9¼	15 a 16	9¼ a 9½	9 a 9¼	8¼ a 9	10 a 10¼	5 a 6

	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.
Import goods.....	176,570,154	130,482,803	95,970,988	156,496,956
" specie.....	13,400,881	10,506,414	17,747,116	5,595,176
Export goods.....	124,338,704	111,443,127	104,973,051	112,251,673
" specie	4,324,336	5,976,249	3,513,565	8,776,743

	1840.	1841.	1842.
Import goods.....	98,258,430	122,957,544	95,000,000
" specie	8,882,813	4,988,633	5,000,000
Export goods.....	123,669,932	111,817,476	104,000,000
" specie	8,416,014	10,034,332	8,000,000

The rates of bills for 1837, were during the suspension of the New York banks, and are, of course, quoted in the depreciated currency of that year. The imports and exports for 1842 are estimates, as the official returns are not yet made. In the fall of 1839, when the United States Bank finally stopped payment, a great flow of specie took place; that institution up to August kept the rates down, by drawing, as it afterwards appeared, on its own credit. During all that time, however, it was a constant shipper of coin; and sent forward, from July to December, over $3,000,000, on its own account, from Philadelphia and New York, being the proceeds of its post notes sold, and also of its exchange bills. When that fictitious supply ceased the rate rose, until three of the New York banks took a New York state loan of $1,500,000 five per cent stock on time, and sending it forward drew against it, sufficiently to check the shipment of coin. In the following year, which was one of small import and large export, the movement of specie was about equal the export, being mostly for dividends and bank payments. In 1841, the export was less than during the previous year, and the import larger, making a difference of $31,000,000 in the balance: accordingly exchange rose at the close of the year, and specie went forward freely, until the bills drawn against the new crops made their appearance; but the drain was so great, that the banks becoming alarmed, repeated their movement of 1839, in relation to supplying the market with bills; happily, however, there was but little occasion for this help. During the present year, a fair amount of exports has been sent forward, but owing to the continued contraction of the banks, causing a derangement of business, the imports have been smaller—hence the balance due the United States, notwithstanding that large sums are due foreign creditors for the interest and principals of loans heretofore had. In addition to an apparent balance due, it has become requisite for the foreign manufacturers to send forward specie in the purchase of cotton. The dilapidation of the southern banks and the fall in exchange have become so great, that the old system of buying on bills of credit, and discounting the sixty-day bills on New York, cannot be pursued; and it is requisite to send forward specie to make the purchase, from France, England, and New York. This has been done already, to the extent of probably $1,000,000, and will continue in some degree. The plenteousness of money, both in England and on the continent, favors this opera-

tion; and it will be enhanced by the probability of a renewed activity in the home market of England, growing out of the low prices of food, a powerful element of manufacturing prosperity. This affords a favorable view for cotton-growers; but the large harvests of England do not offer so much prospect of a vent for our superabundant agricultural produce in that quarter. It has been stated, however, that the harvest of France is deficient, as also that of the Mediterranean coast of the southern countries of Europe. France is, generally speaking, a grain and food importing country, both on her own account and to supply her colony of Algiers, as well as those of the West Indies. In relation to the import of grain into France, we have compiled, from official sources, the following table, showing the quantities of grain imported into France, as well as the sources from whence it is drawn. According to an article in our September number, on the Trade of France, it will be observed, that the years 1832–6–40 were years of the largest import; we, therefore, take those years with the export for 1840:—

WHEAT IMPORTED INTO FRANCE FOR A SERIES OF YEARS, WITH THE EXPORT FOR 1840.

	Import.			*Export.*
Where from.	1832.	1836.	1840.	1840.
Russia, (litres,)	86,368,277	59,677,359	44,577,475	—
Sweden,	521,850	—	—	720
Denmark,	6,986,200	1,906,550	8,010,630	—
Prussia,	39,459,689	1,576,500	11,634,090	8,120
Mecklinbergh Schwerin,	—	—	6,019,400	—
Hanse Towns,	38,996,207	4,426,102	27,531,070	—
Holland,	6,731,050	564,684	2,622,683	—
Belgium,	5,578,412	29,380	15,251,089	1,081,342
England,	52,280,025	1,330,757	6,426,777	12,493,394
Portugal,	119,060	215,500	—	344,358
Spain,	6,158,401	2,110,300	11,255,297	22,212
Austria,	21,063,010	32,023,559	1,357,250	—
Sardinia,	55,092,136	25,013,903	53,585,340	33,021,386
Two Sicilies,	43,937,335	14,048,975	4,067,949	120
Tuscany,	16,364,773	9,411,399	20,596,169	—
Roman States,	—	—	8,358,262	—
Switzerland,	100,895	75	111,214	970,942
Germany,	16,518,249	2,683,486	3,978,033	425
Greece,	4,124,360	—	—	—
Turkey,	34,230,540	1,793,860	13,976,880	—
Egypt,	—	—	6,867,310	—
Algiers,	701,780	565,685	400	11,073,115
Barbary States,	16,180	1,161,959	—	3
United States,	356,200	—	58,400	910
Brazils,	—	—	—	103,800
Other countries,	100	556	74,000	248,085
Total litres,	435,701,729	158,540,589	246,359,158	59,368,932
" bushels,	12,448,620	4,529,729	7,038,849	1,553,398
Value—francs,	87,140,346	31,708,117	49,271,944	11,873,786
" dollars,	16,338,814	5,845,271	9,238,389	2,226,334
Flour Import and the Export for 1840.				
Algiers,	—	—	—	9,567,560
Brazils,	—	—	—	562,231
Gaudaloupe,	—	—	—	3,421,588
U. States, (kilog.)	9,904,585	95	6,020,909	—
Martinique,	—	—	—	4,031,019
Other countries,	4,377,151	670,237	847,032	4,134,822
Total kilog.	14,382,736	670,332	6,867,941	21,737,220
" bbls.	158,210	6,823	60,870	239,109
" francs,	5,039,954	234,616	2,403,779	4,347,444
" dollars,	943,866	43,986	450,708	815,145

This table gives us the fact, that in three years here quoted, wheat and wheat flour equivalent to an annual average of 8,143,339 bushels of wheat, were imported into France, and nearly all for French consumption. The year 1840 was the year of the largest export from the United States, and was one of short crops in England and France also. Last year the crops were also small, and a succession of defective crops have largely reduced the stocks in the granaries of Europe. This year the harvest of England is sufficient for its own use, while that of France is short, as well as that of Spain. These facts, in connection with the abundance of money in Europe, interest being for the first time for many years, at 3 per cent in Paris, leads to the conclusion that prices will so rise as to afford a market for American flour, more especially to supply the 240,000 barrels necessary for the French colonies. The flour imports of France, it appears, are mostly from the United States.

This state of affairs on the continent, as well as that in England, is likely to lead to a demand for American produce, more especially as the prices are so low as to compete successfully with the agricultural produce of Europe. This produce, both for England and the continent, must be paid for in specie—a fact practically evinced by the present low state of the exchanges with Europe, at this season of the year, when usually they rule highest. The precious metals are now flowing in from Europe in answer to the low state of sterling bills, of which the best descriptions have been sold as low as 5¼ per cent, nominal premium; a rate which will allow of their purchase for the purpose of importing their proceeds in specie. Favorable as are the foreign exchanges at this point, they are still more so at the leading points of the south, being at a nominal discount of 1½ a 2 per cent at New Orleans, where also sight bills on New York are at a heavy discount, a fact which, as indicated in our last number, has led to the export of specie from this city to that point to an amount ranging from $1,500,000 to $2,000,000; the amount afloat, at one time, being so great as to induce the insurance offices to decline further risks for the present. Large sums in specie have arrived at New Orleans direct, for the purchase of cotton; and also at this point, both on speculation and for employment. Such a movement at this season of the year, when usually it goes abroad, is indicative of a larger import, as the produce moves forward to the points of sale in accumulating quantities. The flow of specie may be so large to this side as to cause some uneasiness to the Bank of England, but it is now beyond her power to control it. The demands upon her are not the proceeds of loans that may be checked at pleasure, or the consequence of high prices there, which may be reduced by a restringent policy; but they are the proceeds of produce at low prices, which must be had to keep in motion the manufacturing interests. It is one of the moving causes that is undermining the whole paper system, and will oblige England to keep her currency on a level with that of the rest of the world with which she holds commercial intercourse. In the few years preceding the late revulsion, attempts were made to spread the paper system on the continent of Europe, and some progress was made therein, many new banks having been established in France, Belgium, and some other countries. These were, however, speedily overtaken by disaster, and now that the paper system in the United States has been nearly destroyed, and the manufacturing supremacy of England, (the support of her paper system,) done away with by successful rivalry, there remains but another short crop to put a finish to that pernicious system. The present state of affairs in this country promises a period of solid prosperity, which can in future be but little influenced by convulsions abroad.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TARIFF OR RATE OF DUTIES

PAYABLE ON GOODS, WARES, AND MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES, FROM AND AFTER THE 30TH DAY OF AUGUST, 1842, ACCORDING TO ACT OF CONGRESS OF THAT DATE.

Compiled for the Merchants' Magazine, by HENRY DOANE, clerk in the Square Yard department of the Customhouse, New York.

Absynthe, extract of	cts. per gal.	60
Acacia		free
Acetate of lead, or white lead, dry or ground in oil	cts. per lb.	4
Acids. Benzoic, Citric, Muriatic, white & yellow, Nitric, Oxalic, Pyroligneous, Tartaric,	per ct.	20
Boracic	per cent	5
Sulphuric, or oil of vitriol	per lb.	1
All others not otherwise enumerated	per cent	20
Acorns	per cent	20
Adhesive felt, for covering ships' bottoms		free
Adhesive plaster, salve	per cent	20
Adzes	per cent	30
African or Cyenne, or Chili peppers	per lb.	10
Agates, plain, do bookbinders	per cent	20
Alabaster, ornaments of	per cent	30
Alcornoque bark		free
Ale, oth'rwise than in bottles	per gal.	15
Ale, in bottles (no duty on bottles,)	per gal.	20
[Twelve of the common size porter bottles are estimated as containing 2¼ gallons.]		
Ale, in casks	per gal.	15
Allspice	per lb.	5
do. oil of	per cent	20
Almonds	per lb.	3
do. oil of	per lb.	9
do. paste	per cent	25
Aloes		free
Alum	per lb.	1½
Amber	per cent	20
do. beads	per cent	25
do. oil of	per cent	20
Ambergris	per cent	20
Amethysts	per cent	7
Ammonia	per cent	20
do. preparations of, not otherwise enumerated	per cent	20
Ammunition, viz— Canister shot, Cannon balls, Chain shot, Grape shot, Langrage,	per lb.	1
Lead shot	per lb.	4
Gunpowder	per lb.	8
Anatomical preparations, specially imported		free
Anchors, and all parts thereof	per lb.	2½
Anchovies, in bbls., pickled	per bbl.	1 00
do. otherwise than in bbls.	pr. ct.	20
Angora goats' wool, or camels' hair	per lb.	1
Animals specially imported		free
Annatto	per cent	20
Anise seed	per cent	20
do. cordial, so called	per gal.	60
do. oil of	per cent	20
Antimony, crude		free
do. preparations of	per cent	20
Antique oil, perfumery	per cent	25
Antiquities, specially imported,		free
Not specially imported, according to the materials of which they are composed.		
Anvils	per lb.	2½
All goods, wares, or merchandise, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, exported to a foreign country, and brought back to the United States; and books, and personal and household effects, (not merchandise,) of citizens of the United States, dying abroad		free
Apothecaries glass measures, with engraved lines. (*See glass.*)		
do. vials and bottles, not exceeding the capacity of six ounces each	per gross	1 75
do. exceeding the capacity of six ounces, and not exceeding 16 oz. each	per gross	2 25
Apparatus.—Philosophical instruments, books, maps, and charts, statues, statuary, busts and casts of marble, bronze, alabaster, or plaster of Paris, paintings, drawings, engravings, etchings, specimens of sculpture, cabinets of coins, medals, gems and all other collections of antiquities; provided the same be specially imported in good faith for the use (and by the order) of any society incorporated or established for philosophical or literary purposes, or for the encouragement of the fine arts, or for the use and		

by the order of any college, academy, school, or seminary of learning in the United States,..... free
Appartus, philosophical, not specially imported, according to the materials of which they are composed.
Apparel, wearing, in actual use, and other personal effects, not merchandise, professional books, instruments, implements, and tools of trade, occupation, or employment of persons arriving in the U. States,..... free
Aqua ammonia, or spirits of hartshorn,.....per cent 20
Aquafortis,.....per cent 20
do. mellis,.....per cent 20
Arabic, gum,..... free
Arrack,.....per gal. 60
Argentine alabata, or German silver, in sheets or otherwise, unmanufactured,.....per cent 30
do. manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 30
Argent vivum,.....per cent 5
Argol,..... free
Arms, fire, except muskets and rifles,.....per cent 30
do. side,.....per cent 30
Arrowroot,.....per cent 20
Arsenic,.....per cent 20
Articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, its territories or fisheries,..... free
Articles composed wholly or chiefly, in quantity, of gold, silver, pearl, and precious stones, according to materials.
Articles, all not free, and not subject to any other specified duty,..pr. ct. 20
Articles manufactured from gold, silver, brass, iron, steel, lead, copper, pewter, tin, German silver, bell-metal, zinc, and bronze, not otherwise enumerated,....per cent 30
Articles, all imported for the use of the U. States,..... free
Artificial feathers, or parts thereof, per cent 25
do. flowers, do.....per cent 25
Assafœtida, gum,..... free
Asses skin,.....per cent 25
do. imitation of,.....per cent 25
Avaroot,..... free
Arbusson, carpeting,.....sq. yard 65
Augers,.....per cent 30
Awl hafts,.....per cent 30
Awls,.....per cent 30
Axes,.....per cent 30
Bacon,.....per lb. 3
Baggage, personal, in actual use,... free
Bagging, cotton,.....square yd. 4
Bags, Grass,.....per cent 25
Gunny,.....square yd. 5
Bags, Woollen,.....per cent 40
Worsted,.....per cent 30
Carpet,.....per cent 30
Baizes,.....square yd. 14
Balls—billiard,.....per cent 20
Cannon,.....per lb. 1
Musket, lead,.....per lb. 4
Iron,.....per lb. 1
Wash,.....per cent 30
Balsams, all not in a crude state, per cent 25
do. all kinds of cosmetics, per cent 25
do. of Tolu,.....per cent 25
Balm of Gilead,.....per cent 25
Bamboos—unmanufactured,..... free
Canes, mounted, per cent 30
Bananas, in bulk,..... free
do. preserved in sugar, brandy, or molasses,.....per cent 25
Barilla,..... free
Bark—Cork tree,..... free
Peruvian,..... free
Barley,.....per bushel 20
do. pearl,.....per lb. 2
Band-iron, slit or rolled,.....per lb. 2½
Bar-iron, in bars or bolts, when manufactured in whole or in part, by rolling,.....per ton 25 00
do. not manufactured in part or whole, by rolling,.....per ton 17 60
Barwood,..... free
Barytes, sulphate of,.....per lb. ½
Bastard files,.....per cent 30
Bassoons,.....per cent 30
Baskets, of wood, ozier, palmleaf, willow, straw, or grass,...per cent 25
Bass, rope,.....per lb. 6
Battledors,.....per cent 30
Bay wax, or myrtle wax,...per cent 20
Bayonets,.....per cent 30
Beads, wax, amber, composition, and all others not enumerated,...pr. ct. 25
Beans, Tonkay, Vanilla, and all others,.....per cent 20
Beaver. (*See fur.*)
Bed feathers,.....per cent 25
do. screws,.....per cent 30
Bed sides. (*See carpeting.*)
Beef,.....per lb. 2
Beer, in bottles,.....per gal. 20
do. otherwise than in bottles, " 15
Beeswax, bleached or unbleached, per cent 15
Bellows,.....per cent 35
do pipes,.....per cent 30
Bell--cranks,.....per cent 30
Metal, old, for remanufact'ng, free
Parts of old bells,..... free
Belts—sword leather,.....per cent 35
Sword, embroidered with gold or silver thread, done with a needle,.....per cent 20
Benzoic, acid, or Flor Benzoin, pr. ct. 20
Benjamin, gum,.....per cent 20

Bed-spreads, or covers made of waste ends and scraps of printed calicos sewed together, not subject to regulations on cotton cloths,..per cent 30
Bergamot, oil of,.....per cent 25
Berries—all used for dye,..... free
Juniper,.....per cent 20
All others,..... free
Bezoar stones,.....per cent 20
Bichromate of potash,.....per cent 20
Binders' boards, paper,.....per lb. 3
Binding—Carpet,.....per cent 30
Cotton,.....per cent 30
Woollen a component part,.....per cent 40
Worsted & silk,..per cent 30
Linen,.....per cent 25
Birds,.....per cent 20
Bismuth and oxide bismuth,per cent 20
Black ivory or bone,.....per cent ⅛
Lamp,.....per cent 20
Black lead pencils,.....per cent 25
Lead pots,.....per cent 20
Lead powder,.....per cent 20
Lead crucibles,.....per cent 20
do. Glass bottles, not exceeding the capacity of 1 qrt. each, pr. gro. 3 00
do. exceeding 1 quart,.....pr. gro. 4 00
Blacking, shoe and boot,....per cent 20
Blacksmiths' hammers,.....per lb. 2½
Bladders,.....per lb. 20
Blankets, woollen, cost not exceeding 75 cents each at the place whence imported, and dimensions not exceeding 72×52 inches each, nor less than 45×60,.....per cent 15
do. Goats' hair, or Mohair, per ct. 20
do. all other woollen,.....per cent 25
Blue vitriol,.....per lb. 4
Boards in the rough, not planed nor wrought into any shape for use—per cent 20
do. wrought into shapes that fit them, respectively, for any specific or permanent use without further manufacture, shall be deemed as manufct'd wood, and pay....pr. ct. 30
Bobbinet, cotton lace,.....per cent 20
Bobbin,.....per cent 30
Bobbin wire. (*See wire.*)
Bockings,.....per square yard 14
Bodkins—ivory,.....per cent 20
Bone,.....per cent 20
Metallic,.....per cent 30
Bohea tea, when imported in American vessels from place of production,..... free
Boiler plates. (*See iron.*)
Bologna sausages,.....per cent 25
Bolt rope...Tarred,.....per lb. 5
Untarred,.....per lb. 4½
Bolting cloth, silk,.....per cent 20
Bone tips,.....per cent 5
Bone...Whale, rosettes.....per cent 20
Bone, Whale, of for'n fisheries, p. ct. 12½
do. manufactures of whalebone not otherwise enumerated,pr. cent 20
Bonnets...Leghorn,chip,grass,straw, or made from any vegetable substance.....per cent 35
Bonnets—silk or satin,.....each 2 00
do. whalebone,fur,or leather,pr. ct. 35
do. cotton,.....per cent 40
do. hair,.....per cent 35
Bonnet wire, or canetitle, if covered with silk,.....per lb. 12
do. covered with cotton thread or other materials,.....per lb. 8
Books—Blank, bound,.....per lb. 20
Unbound,.....per lb. 15
Printed in the English language, or of which English forms the text, when bound,.....per lb. 30
Unbound, or in sheets,.....per lb. 20
Provided, That whenever the importer shall prove to the satisfaction of the collector when the goods are entered, that any such book has been printed and published abroad more than one year and not republished in this country; or has been printed and published abroad more than five years before such importation: then, and in such case, such books shall be admitted at one half the above rate of duties. Provided that the said terms of one-year, or five years, shall in no case commence or be computed at and from the day before the passage of this act.
do. Latin and Greek, or in which either language forms the text, when bound,.....per lb. 15
Unbound,.....per lb. 13
On books printed in Hebrew, or of which that language forms the text, when bound,...per lb. 10
Unbound,.....per lb. 8
All printed in foreign languages, Latin, Greek, and Hebrew excepted, when bound or in boards,.....per vol. 5
In sheets or pamphlets.....per lb. 15
Editions of works in the Greek, Latin, Hebrew, or English languages, which have been printed 40 years prior to the date of importation,.....per vol. 5
Reports of legislative committees appointed under foreign governments,.....per vol. 5
Polyglots, Lexicons, and Dictionaries,.....per lb. 5
Engravings or plates, with or without letter press, bound or unbound,.....per cent 20
Maps and charts,.....per cent 20

B'ks, Professional, belonging to persons arriving in the U.States, in actual use,..... free
Boots and bootees, men's, leather, wholly or partially manuf'd,...pair 1 25
Boots—women's, do. do.....pair 50
do. children's, do. do.....pair 15
do. silk or satin, laced, for women or men,.....pair 75
do. children, do. do.....pair 25
Boot webbing—Cotton,.....per cent 30
Flax,.....per cent 25
Hemp,.....per cent 20
Borax, or Tincal,.....per cent 25
Botany, specimens of, specially imported,..... free
Bottles—Apothecaries, not exceeding the capacity of 6 oz. each, per gro. 1 75
Exceeding 6 oz., and not exc'ding the capacity of 16 oz. each, pr.g. 2 25
Perfumery and fancy vials and bottles, uncut, not exceeding the capacity of 4 oz. each, per gross 2 50
do. do. exceeding 4 oz., and not exceeding in capacity 16 ounces each,.....per gross 3 00
Black and green, and jars, exc'ding 8 oz., and not exceeding in capacity 1 quart each,.....per gross 3 00
Exceeding 1 quart each, per gross 4 00
Cut and engraved. (*See glass.*)
Demijohns and Carboys, of the capacity of half a gal. or less,...each 15
Exceeding half a gal., and not exceeding 3 gallons,.....each 30
Exceeding 3 gallons,.....each 50
Bougies, gum-elastic,.....per cent 30
Boxes—Gold or silver, musical, japanned, (dressing,) all wood, or sand, of tin,.....per cent 30
Tortoise shell, paper snuff-boxes, japanned or not, or paper fancy boxes,.....per cent 25
Box boards, paper,.....per lb. 3
Bracelets—Gold or set, or gilt. (*See jewelry.*)
Hair, human, or other,...per cent, 25
Other, not oth'rwise enum'ted, " 30
Braces and bits—carpenters', or parts thereof,.....per cent 30
do. or suspenders of silk, with buckles or without, cotton, or worsted,.....per cent 35
Woollen, if made on frame, pr. ct. 40
If made by needle,.....per cent 50
Indiarubber or in part, costing less than $2 per doz., to be valued as costing $2,.....per cent 30
Leather,.....per cent 35
Brads—not exceeding 16 ounces to the 1000,.....per 1000 5
Exc'ding 16 oz. to the 1000,pr.lb. 5
Braids—Curls, chains, and ringlets, made of hair, for ornaments for headdresses,.....per cent 25
Braids, Silk, for do.....per cent 30
Straw, or other vegetable substances for making bonnets,per cent 35
Brandy, of all proofs,.....per gallon 1 00
Brass—in sheet or rolled,...per cent 30
In pigs or bars,..... free
Battery or hamm'd kettles, per lb. 12
Screws,.....per lb. 30
Wire,.....per cent 25
Old, and fit only to be remanuf'd, free
Other manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 30
Braziers' rods, and round or squar'd iron, 3-16ths to 10-16ths of an inch diameter,.....per lb. 2½
Brazil Wood, in stick,..... free
Ground,.....per cent 30
Brazilletto Wood, in stick,..... free
Ground,.....per cent 30
Brazil Pebbles, prepared for spectacles,.....per gross 2 00
Bread Baskets, japanned, plated, or silver,.....per cent 30
Bricks and paving tiles,.....per cent 25
Britannia Ware,.....per cent 30
Bridle Bits,.....per cent 30
Bridles,.....per cent 35
Brimstone, crude, and flour sulphur, free
Roll,.....per cent 25
Bristles,.....per lb. 1
Bronze, manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 30
Liquor, gold or bronze color,pr.ct. 20
Powder,.....per cent 20
Brooms and brushes of all kinds, " 30
Brown Spanish Dye,.....per lb. 1
Ground in oil,.....per lb. 1½
Brown Smalts,.....per cent 20
Buckles, metallic, of all sorts,per ct. 30
Buffalo cloth, cotton goods manufactured by napping or raising, cutting or shearing, if costing less than 35 cents the square yard, to be estimated at 35 cents, per cent 30
Bugles, musical instruments,..pr. ct. 30
Bugles, beads,..... 25
Building stones,.....per cent 20
Bullets, lead,.....per lb. 4
Iron,..... per lb. 1
Bulrushes,.....per cent 20
Bulbs, or bulbous roots,..... free
Bullion,..... free
Bunting,.....per cent 30
Burr stones, unwrought,..... free
Wrought,.....per cent 20
Burgundy pitch,.....per cent 25
Busts—Lead,.....per lb. 4
Marble,.....per cent 30
Other, not otherwise specified, " 20
Butter,.....per lb. 5
Buttons—Metal of all kinds,per cent 30
If costing less than $1 per gross, to be valued at $1—all others,

of whatever materials composed,.....per cent 25
NOTE. Lastings, prunellas, and similar fabrics, and mohair, or worsted cloth, black linen, canvass, figured satin, figured, brocaded, or Terry velvet, when imported in strips, pieces, or patterns, of the size and shape, exclusively of buttons,.....per cent 5
Button Molds, of whatever materials composed,.....per cent 25
Butcher Knives,.....per cent 30
Butt Hinges, iron,.....per lb. 2½
Brass,..... .....per cent 30
Cabinet wares,.....per cent 30
Cables, tarred,.....per lb. 5
Untarred,.....per lb. 4½
Cables, iron or chain, or parts thereof,.....per lb. 2½
Cajeput Oil,.....per cent 20
Cakes, linseed,.....per cent 20
Calf-skins, raw, salted or pickled in a raw state,.....per cent 5
do. and seal-skins, tanned & dressed,.....per dozen 5 00
Calomel, and all preparations of mercury,.....per cent 25
Camblets, of goats' hair or mohair, per cent 20
Cameos, real or imitation,...per cent 7½
Camels' Hair,.....per lb. 1
do. do. pencils,.....per cent 20
Camomile Flowers,.....per cent 20
Camphor, crude,.....per lb. 5
Refined,.....per lb. 20
Camwood, in stick,..... free
Canary seed,.....per cent 20
Candlesticks, pewter, silver, tin, porcelain, marble, stone, alabaster, brass earthenware, bronze, gilt, gold, iron, japanned, or plated,.....per cent 30
do. cut glass,.....per lb. 45
do. bone or ivory,.....per cent 20
Candy,.....per lb. 6
Canetitle, or bonnet or cap wire,—
When covered with silk,....per lb. 12
do do. cotton thread, or other materials,.....per lb. 8
Candles—Tallow,.....per lb. 4
Wax, spermaceti, or spermaceti & wax mixed,.....per lb. 8
Canes, walk'g, not in the rough, pr.ct. 30
Cannon, brass,.....per cent 30
Iron,.....per lb. 1
Cantharides,..... free
Canton Crapes,.....per 16 oz. 2 50
Canvass, Russia, for sails, square yd. 7
Caps and Bases, made by hand, pr.ct. 40
Chip,.....per cent 35
Cotton, wove,.....per cent 30
Fur,.....per cent 35
Kilmanock wool,.....per cent 30
Silk,.....per cent 30
Caps—Leather,.....per cent 35
Silk, for ornaments to women's headdresses,.....per cent 30
Linen, made by hand,...per cent 40
Cap-pieces, for stills,.....per cent 30
Capes, lace, sewed,.....per cent 40
Carbines,.....per cent 30
Carbonate of Soda,.....per cent 20
Carbuncles,.....per cent 7
Carboys, not exceeding in capacity ½ gallon,.....each 15
Exceeding ½ gallon and not exceeding 3 gallons,.....each 30
Exceeding 3 gallons,.....each 50
Cards—Playing,..... .....pack 25
Visiting, blank, for printing, pr. lb. 12
do. for carding wool and cotton, per cent. 30
Carpeting—Arbusson, Wilton, Treble Ingrain, Saxony, per sq. yd. 65
Brussels and Turkey, pr. square yd. 55
Venetian and Ingrain,...per sq. yd. 30
All other kinds of carpets or carpeting of wool, hemp, flax, or cotton, or parts of either, or other material, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 30
Also, bedsides, and other portions of carpets or carpeting, shall pay the rate of duty herein imposed on carpets or carpeting of similar character.
do. Oilcloth, stamped, printed, or painted,.....per square yard 35
Of straw,.....per cent 30
Hearth Rugs, all,.....per cent 40
Carpet Bags,.....per cent 30
Carriages of all descriptions, and parts thereof, and furniture, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 30
Carui, oil of carraway seed, per cent 20
Casement Rods, iron,.....per lb. 2½
Cases, fish skin,.....per cent 20
Casks, empty,.....per cent 30
Cassada Root,..... free
Cassia,.....per lb. 5
Oil of,.....per cent 20
Castana Nuts,.....per lb. 1
Castings—of plaster,.....per cent 20
Of vessels of iron, not otherwise specified,.....per lb. 1½
All other castings than vessels not otherwise specified,.....per lb. 1
On glazed or tinned hollow ware, and castings,.....per lb. 2½
Sad, or smoothing irons, butt hinges, and hatters' and tailors' pressing irons,.....per lb. 2½
Provided, That all vessels and castings, as above, which shall be partly manufactured after the castings, or havi'g handles, rings, hoops, or other additions, of wro't iron, shall pay the same duty as on the

wrought iron, if it shall amount to more than the duty on castings.
Castor Beans,.....per cent 20
Oil,.....per gallon 40
Castors—Brass, iron, wood, or metallic,.....per cent 30
If with glasses, see glass for separate duty on the cruets.
Castorum,.....per cent 20
Cast-iron vessels. (*See castings.*)
Catechu. (*See gum.*)
Catgut,.....per cent 15
Catsup, or catchup,.....per cent 30
Caustic,.....per cent 20
Cayenne Pepper,.....per lb. 10
Cedar Wood,.....per cent 15
Cement, Roman,.....per cent 20
Cerise, a cordial,.....per gallon 60
Chafing Dishes, copper, iron, and tin,.....per cent 30
Chain Cables,.....per lb. 2½
Chains—iron, breeching, log, halter, and trace,.....per lb. 4
Other smaller iron chains than cables,.....per lb. 4
Chairs, sitting,.....per lb. 30
Chalk—white,..... free
Tailors' and red,.....per cent 20
Chandeliers—brass or other metal, per cent 30
Of cut glass,.....per lb. 45
Of glass not cut, according to the materials. (*See glass.*)
Charts, loose or in books,....per cent 20
Specially imported,..... free
Cheese,.....per lb. 9
Chemical preparations, not oth'rwise enumerated,.....per cent 20
Salts, do. do.....per cent 20
Chenille Cords, cotton being a component part,.....per cent 30
Cherry Rum, cordial,.....per gallon 60
Chessmen—ivory or bone,...per cent 20
Wood,.....per cent 30
Chili Pepper,.....per lb. 10
China Ware,.....per cent 30
Chinese Floor Matting, of flags, jute, or grass,.....per cent 25
Chamois Skins, dress'd, not colored, per dozen 1 00
Chisels, socket and others,..per cent 30
Chlorometers. (*See glass.*)
Chloride of Lime,.....per lb. 1
Chocolate,.....per lb. 4
Chromate of Potash,.....per cent 20
do. Lead,.....per lb. 4
Chromic—yellow,.....per cent 20
Acid,.....per cent 20
Chronometers, box.....per cent 20
Chrysolites,.....per cent 7
Coffee, in American vessels, from place of production,..... free
Coiar, rope, untarred,.....per lb. 4½
Clay—unwrought,..... free
Ground or prepared,.....per cent 20
Coral, or Spartateen,.....per cent 20
Cigars,.....per lb. 40
Cinchona, Cinchonine, and Cinnabar, per cent 20
Cinnamon,.....per lb. 25
Oil of,.....per cent 20
Circingle, webb, woollen,...per cent 40
Of Indiarubber,.....per cent 30
Citric Acid. (*See acids.*)
Citron—natural state, or preserved, per cent 25
Oil of,.....per cent 20
Clasps—set in gold or silver, pr. cent 20
In other metal,.....per cent 30
Of hair,.....per cent 25
Cloaks—according to material.
do. Pins, metallic,.....per cent 30
Clocks,.....per cent 25
Cloth—Indiarubber, wool being a compon't part of chief value, pr.ct. 40
Woollen,.....per cent 40
Other, according to materials.
Bolting,.....per cent 20
Oil, for floors, patent, stamped, printed or painted,..pr. sq. yard 35
Oil, for hats, aprons, &c., " 12½
Clothing, ready made, except wove on frames,.....per cent 50
Cloves,.....per lb. 8
Oil of,.....per lb. 30
Coaches, or parts thereof, and coach furniture,.....per cent 30
Coach Lace, all kinds of,....per cent 35
Coal,.....per ton 1 75
do. Hods, copper or iron,..per cent 30
Coatings, according to materials.
do. goats' hair or mohair, per cent 20
Cobalt,.....per cent 20
Cochineal,..... free
Coculus Indicus,.....per cent 20
Cocks, metallic and wood,. per cent 30
Cocoanuts, in bulk,..... free
Cocoa,.....per lb. 1
Codilla, or tow of flax and hemp, per ton 20 00
Codfish, dry,.....per 112 lbs. 1 00
Coffee,..... free
do. Mills,.....per cent 30
Coiar, hemp,.....per ton 25 00
Coins—gold and silver,..... free
Cabinets of, specially imported,... free
do. not specially imported, per ct. 20
Coke, or culm of coal,.....per bush. 5
Cold Cream, as cosmetics, per cent 25
Colocynth,.....per cent 20
Cologne Water,.....per cent 25
Colors, Water,.....per cent 20
Combs—Curry,.....per cent 30
Hair, all kinds,.....per cent 25
Commode handles and knobs, glass. (*See glass.*)
do. of metals,.....per cent 30.

Comforters, woollen,.....per cent 30
Compasses, mariners',.....per cent 30
Coney Wool or Fur. (*See fur.*)
Confectionery, all kinds except sugar-candy,.....per cent 25
Copper—in pigs, bars, ore, plate, or sheets for sheathing vessels; but none is to be so considered except that which is 14 inches wide by 48 long, and weighing from 14 to 34 ounces per square foot,..... free
In any shape for the use of the mint, or old, for remanufact'g, free
Manufactures of, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 30
Bottoms, cut round, and bottoms raised at the edge, and still-bottoms cut round & turned up on the edge, and parts thereof;—and on plates or sheets weigh'g more than 34 ounces to the sq. foot, commonly called braziers' copper,.....per cent 30
Bolts, rods, nails, and spikes, pr.lb. 4
Patent sheathing metal, composed part of copper,.....per lb. 2
Copperas,.....per lb. 2
Copal. (*See gum.*)
Cordage—tarred,.....per lb. 5
Untarred,.....per lb. 4½
Cordials,.....per gallon 60
Coriander Seed,.....per cent 20
Copperas, or green vitriol,.....per lb. 2
Cork, bark of tree, unmanufactur'd, free
Corks,.....per cent 30
Other manufactures of,....per cent 25
Cornelian,.....per cent 7
Corn,.....per bush. 10
Corrosive Sublimate,.....per cent 25
Cosmetics,.....per cent 25
Cotton Bagging, for cotton bales, per square yard 4
Cotton—bobbinet, bobb't lace, laces, except coach lace, quillings and insertings, usually known as trimming laces,.....per cent 20
do. all manufactures of, or of which cotton shall be a component part, not dyed, color'd, print'd, or stained, not exceeding in value 20 cts. per square yard, shall be valued at 20 cents per square yard, per cent 30
The same if dyed, color'd, printed, or stained, in whole or in part, not exceeding in value 30 cts. per sq. yard, shall be valued at 30 cents per square yard, (excepting as follows,)..... .....per cent 30
do. velvets, cords, moleskins, fustians, buffalo cloths, or goods manufactured by napping or raising, cutting or shearing, not exceeding in value 35 cents per square yard, which shall be valued at 35 cents per square yard,.....per cent 30
Raw, or not manufactured, pound 3
All manufactures of, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 30
Twist, Yarn, and Thread, unbleach'd and uncolor'd, the true value of which at the place whence imported shall be less than 60 cents per lb., shall be valued at 60 cents per lb., and pay duty,.....per cent 25
The same, bleach'd or color'd, the true value of which at place whence imported shall be less than 75 cents per lb., shall be valued at 75 cents per lb., and pay.....per cent 25
Counters—Bone, Ivory, Pearl, and Rice,.....per cent 20
Gold, Silver, or other metal, p. c. 30
Court Plaster,.....per cent 30
Covers, Oil Silk Hat, made up, p. c. 40
Cowage, or Cow Itch,.....per cent 20
Cowries, Shells,.....per cent 20
Crape, Silk,.....16 oz. 2 50
Crash, Hemp,.....per cent 20
Cranks, Cast Iron,.....pound 1
Wrought Iron, for mills, &c. pound 4
Cravats, ready made, by hand, p. c. 40
Crayons,.....per cent 25
Crayon Pencils, Lead,.....per cent 25
Cremor Tartar, or Cream of Tartar, free
Crêpe Lisse, (*See silks.*)
Crockery,.....per cent 30
Crosscut Saws,.....each 1 00
Crowns, Leghorn Hat,.....per cent 35
Crucibles, Black Lead,.....per cent 20
Crystals, Watch,..... .....gross 2 00
Glass, for seals,.....pound 45
Stone and Orange,.....per cent 20
Cubebs,.....per cent 20
Cudbear,.....per cent 20
Cummin Seed,.....per cent 20
Curls, Hair, of all kinds,....per cent 25
Curled Hair, for mattresses, per cent 10
Currants, Zante,.....pound 3
Cutting Knives,.....per cent 30
Cutlery, all kinds, not otherwise specified, or of which any of the metals form a component part,...p. c. 30
Cyanide of Iodine, Potassium, or Zinc,.....per cent 20
Daggers,.....per cent 30
Dates,.....pound 1
Delphware,.....per cent 30
Demijohns and Carboys, not exceeding in capacity half gallon each, each 15
Over half gallon, and not exceeding three gallons,.....each 30
Exceeding three gallons,.....each 50
Dentrifices,.....per cent 25
Diamonds, Set, or not,.....per cent 7½
Glaziers', Set,.....per cent 25

Diaper, Linen,.....per cent 25
Hemp,.....per cent 20
Cotton,.....per cent 30
Dice—Ivory, Horn, or Bone, per ct. 20
Directions for Patent Medicines, (*See books.*)
Dirks,.....per cent 30
Distilled Vinegar,.....gallon 8
Dividers, metallic,.....per cent 30
Dolls, Dressed, Leather,..... } p.c. 30
Paperheads, Wax, Wood, }
Dominoes, Bone, Horn, or Ivory, per cent 20
Down, all kinds for beds,...per cent 25
Dragon's Blood,.....per cent 20
Drawing Pencils, camel's hair, p. c. 20
Drawings, specially imported,..... free
Other,.....per cent 20
Drawer Knobs, metallic,....per cent 30
Ivory, or Bone,.....per cent 20
Wood,.....per cent 30
Glass, (*See glass.*)
Drawing Knives,.....per cent 30
Drawers, Guernsey, wool or cotton, made on frames,.....per cent 30
Knit, without needlework, per ct. 30
Silk, made up wholly or in part by hand,.....per cent 40
Drillings, Linen, colored or not, p. c. 25
Hemp,.....per cent 20
Drugs, Dyeing, not otherwise enumerated,..... free
Other, not otherwise specified, p.c. 20
Duck, all sailduck,.....square yard 7
Dutch Pink,.....pound 1
Dutch Metal, in leaf,.....per cent 25
Dyeing Articles, berries, nuts, and vegetables, used principally for composing dyes,..... free
Dyewoods, in stick,..... free
Ground,.....per cent 20
Earth, all ochery earths for paints, dry,.....pound 1
Ground in oil,.....pound 1½
Earthenware,.....per cent 30
Ebony, Unmanufactured,..... free
Manufactures of,.....per cent 30
Elastic Garters, made of elastic wire, covered with leather, with metal clasps,.....per cent 35
Elephants' Teeth,..... free
Embroidery, in gold or silver, fine or half fine, when finished; other than clothing,.....per cent 20
In gold or silver, on clothing which is finished in whole or in part, per cent 50
Emeralds,.....per cent 7
Emery,..... free
Emetic, Tartar,.....per cent 20
Engravers' Copper, prepared or polished,.....per cent 30
Engraved Lines, for music paper, per cent 25
Engravings and Plates, bound or unbound, with or without letter paper,.....per cent 20
Epaulettes and Wings, gold or silver, free
Plated, gilt, mi fin, cotton, per et. 30
Wool,.....per cent 40
Epsom Salts, or sulphate magnesia, per cent 20
Escutcheons, of metal,.....per cent 30
Essences, all not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 25
Ether, Nitric, Sulphuric,....per cent 20
Extracts, all not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 25
Eyes and Rods, for stairs,...per cent 30
Fans, of every description,..per cent 25
Fancy Soap, washballs, and shaving soap,.....per cent 30
Fancy Vials and bottles uncut, not exceeding the capacity of four ounces each,.....gross 2 50
Over four ounces, and not exceeding sixteen ounces,.....gross 3 00
Fearnought Cloth,.....per cent 40
Feathers, Ornamental, and parts thereof,.....per cent 25
for beds,.....per cent 25
Felt, Patent Adhesive, for ships' bottoms,..... free
Felts, or Hat Bodies, made in whole or part of wool,.....each 18
Felting, Hatters',.....per cent 40
Fiddles,.....per cent 30
Fifes,.....per cent 30
Fids,.....per cent 30
Figures, ornaments of alabaster and spar,.....per cent 30
Metallic, ornamental do...per cent 30
Specially imported as works of art,..... free
Figs,.....pound 2
Filberts,.....pound 1
Files,.....per cent 30
Filtering Stones,.....per cent 20
Firearms, other than muskets and rifles,.....per cent 30
Crackers and Fireworks, per cent 20
Firewood,.....per cent 20
Fish, foreign caught, dry or smoked, 112 lbs. 1 00
Mackerel and Herring, pickled or salted,.....barrel 1 50
Salmon, pickled,.....barrel 2 00
All other pickled in barrels, barrel 1 00
Preserved in oil, such as Sardines, per cent 20
Pickled, other than in barrels or half barrels,.....per cent 20
Fresh,..... free
Glue, called Isinglass,....per cent 20
Hooks,.....per cent 30
Sauce,.....per cent 30
Skins, Raw,.....per cent 20
Skin Cases,.....per cent 20

Fisheries of the United States, all the products of,..... free
Fishing Nets, Seines,.....pound 7
Lines, Hemp,.....per cent 20
" Flax,.....per cent 25
" Silk,.....16 oz. 2 50
Flags, floor matting made of, per ct. 25
Flageolets,.....per cent 30
Flannels, all except Cotton, sq. yd. 14
Flasks or Bottles that come in Gin cases, (*See glass.*)
Powder, Metallic,.....per cent 30
Leather,.....per cent 35
Horn,.....per cent 20
Flat Irons, without wrought iron handles,.....pound 2½
Flats for making hats and bonnets,p.c. 35
Flax, unmanufactured,.....ton 20 00
All manufactures of, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 25
Flies, Spanish, Cantharides,..... free
Flints, ground or not,..... free
Floor Oilcloths, stamped, printed, or painted,.....square yard 35
Matting, made of flags, jute, or grass,.....per cent 25
Mats, of whatever material composed,.....per cent 25
Flor Benzoin,.....per cent 20
Floss, Silk, or Chenille, if purified from gum, dyed, and prepared for manufacture,.....per cent 25
Cotton, (*See cotton.*)
Flour, Wheat,.....cwt. 70
" of other grain,.....per cent 20
" Sulphur,..... free
Flower Water, Orange,.....per cent 20
Flowers, Artificial, or parts thereof, per cent 25
Flutes of all kinds,.....per cent 30
Foils, Fencing,.....per cent 30
Forks, metallic or wood,....per cent 30
Other, according to materials.
Forge Hammers,.....pound 2½
Fossils,..... free
Frames, or Sticks, for umbrellas or parasols,.....per cent 30
Cruet, Quadrant, Silver Cruet, p.c. 30
Frankincense, Gum, crude, per cent 15
Fringes, for coach makers or upholsterers, of cotton, or cotton and silk,.....per cent 30
wool being material of chief value, per cent 40
Merino,.....per cent 30
Frizettes, Hair,.....per cent 25
Silk,.....per cent 30
Frocks, Guernsey, Woollen, per ct. 30
Furniture, Coach, of all kinds, p. c. 30
Furniture, Calico or Chintz, (*See cottons.*)
Oilcloth, made on Canton or cotton flannel,.....square yard 16
Other Furniture, Oilcloth, sq. yd. 10
Furs of all kinds, on the skin, undressed,.....per cent 5
Dressed on the skin,.....per cent 25
Hatters, dressed or undressed, on the skin,.....per skin 25
Fur Hats, Caps, Muffs, and Tippets, per cent 35
Other manufactures of, not specified,.....per cent 35
Fur Hat Bodies, Frames, Felts, manufactured, put in form, or trimmed, or otherwise,.....per cent 25
Fustic, in Stick,..... free
Ground,.....per cent 20
Galbanum, Gum,.....per cent 15
Galls, Nut,..... free
Gamboge, Gum, crude,.....per cent 15
Game, prepared for food, in cases or otherwise,.....per cent 25
Bags, Leather,.....per cent 35
" Twine,.....per cent 20
Garnets, Glass,.....pound 45
A precious stone,.....per cent 7
Imitation,.....per cent 7½
Garden Seeds,..... free
Gelatine, for clarifying,.....per cent 30
Gems,.....per cent 7
Gentian Root,..... free
German Silver, or Argentine Alabata, in sheets or otherwise, not manufactured,.....per cent 30
Manufactures of,.....per cent 30
Gilt Bases and Capitals,.....per cent 30
Gilt Jewelry of all kinds,...per cent 25
" Paper,.....per cent 25
" Other ware, metallic, and of all kinds,.....per cent 30
" Wood,.....per cent 30
Gimp, Cotton or Silk,.....per cent 30
Wire being a component part, p.c. 30
Gin—First and Second Proof, gallon 60
Third,.....gallon 65
Fourth,.....gallon 70
Fifth,.....gallon 75
Above Fifth Proof,.....gallon 90
Ginger Root,.....pound 2
Ground,.....pound 4
Preserved,.....per cent 25
Essence of,.....per cent 25
Gin Cases,.....per cent 30
With bottles, (*See glass.*)
Ginseng,..... free
Girandoles of metal, or glass and metal,.....per cent 30
Glass of Antimony,.....per cent 20
Giraffe Cloth, Cotton,.....per cent 30
Glass—Articles of plain, moulded, or pressed glass, weighing eight ounces each or under, except tumblers,.....pound 12
Do. do. weighing over 8 ounces each,.....pound 10
Tumblers, plain, moulded, or pressed,.....pound 10

Glass—All plain, moulded, or press'd glass, when stoppered, or the bottoms ground or puntled, an additional duty of.....pound 4

All articles of moulded or pressed glass, cut, roughed, or polished in part or parts thereof, and all other articles of flint glass, not otherwise specified, shall pay the duty chargeable on articles of cut glass, of the description and class to which they may severally belong.

Bottles or Jars, black or green, exceeding 8 ounces, and not exceeding in capacity one quart each,.....gross 3 00

Do. exceeding the capacity of one quart,.....gross 4 00

Demijohns and Carboys, holding half a gallon or less,.....each 15

Do. exceeding half a gallon, and not more than 3 gallons,...each 30

Do. exceeding 3 gallons,.....each 50

Perfumery and Fancy Vials and Bottles, uncut, not exceeding the capacity of four ounces each,.....gross 2 50

Do. do. exceeding 4 ounces each, and not more than 16 ounces in capacity,.....gross 3 00

Apothecaries' Vials and Bottles, not exceeding 6 oz. each, gross 1 75

Do. exceeding 6 oz., and not exceeding 16 oz.....gross 2 25

Cut—Chandeliers, Candlesticks, Lustres, Lenses, Lamps, Prisms, and parts of same,.....pound 45

Drops, Icicles, Spangles, and Ornaments, used for mountings, pound 45

Plate Glass, polished, not silvered, not exceeding 12×8,...sq. foot 5

over 12×8 not ex. 14×10, sq. foot 7

" 14×10 " 16×11, sq. foot 8

" 16×11 " 18×12, sq. foot 10

" 18×12 " 22×14, sq. foot 12

" 22×14,.....per cent 30

If Silvered, an addition of 20 per cent to be added to the above duties.

If Framed, a duty of.....per cent 30

Note—On all cylinder or broad glass, weighing over 100 pounds per 100 square feet; and on all crown glass weighing over 160 pounds per 100 square feet;—there shall be an additional duty on the excess at the same rate as herein imposed.

Cylinder or Broad Window Glass, not exceeding 8×10,...sq. foot 2

over 8×10 not ex. 10×12, sq. foot 2½

" 10×12 " 10×14, sq. foot 3½

over 10×14 " 11×16, sq. foot 4

" 11×16 " 12×18, sq. foot 5

" 12×18,.....sq. foot 6

Crown Window Glass, not exceeding 8×10,.....sq. foot 3½

over 8×10 not ex. 10×12, sq. foot 5

" 10×12 " 14×10, sq. foot 6

" 14×10 " 16×11, sq. foot 7

" 16×11 " 18×12, sq. foot 8

" 18×12,.....sq. foot 10

Provided, That all glass imported in sheets or tables, without reference to form, shall pay the highest duty laid on the different descriptions of window glass.

Cut—All vessels, wares, and manufactures of cut glass, when the cutting on the article does not exceed one third the height or length thereof, a duty of...pound 25

Exceeding one third and not over half,.....pound 35

When the cutting extends to or exceeds half,.....pound 45

All articles of glass not specified, so connected with other materials as to render it impracticable to separate it, and determine its weight,.....per cent 25

Paintings on Glass,.....per cent } 30
Porcelain Glass or Glass Colored, }

Watch Crystals,.....gross 2 00

Glauber's Salts,.....per cent 20

Glaziers' Diamonds, Set,....per cent 25

Globes, (*See glass.*)

Gloves—Angora, Worsted, Cotton, Woollen, and Silk, made on frames,.....per cent 30

Men's Leather,.....dozen 1 25

Women's Leather, Habit,...dozen 1 00

Children's do. do. do.....dozen 50

Women's Extra, and demi length Leather,.....dozen 1 50

Children's do. do. do.....dozen 75

Glue,.....pound 5

Fish, or Isinglass,....per cent 20

Goats' Hair or Wool, Thibet and Angora,.....pound 1

Or Mohair unmanufactur'd, pound 1

All other,.....pound 1

Or Mohair, manufactures of, p. c. 20

Goatskins, Raw,.....per cent 20

Tanned and Dressed,.....dozen 2 50

Tanned and Not Dressed,...dozen 1 00

Gold Epaulettes and Wings,..... free

Beaters' Brime,.....per cent 20

Beaters' Skins,.....per cent 20

Coin and Bullion,..... free

Dust,..... free

Or Silver Lace, even if mi fin, per cent 15

Leaf,.....per cent 20

Paper, in sheets, strips, or other form,.....pound 12½

Gold—Laces, Galloons, Tresses, Tassels, Knots and Stars, gold or silver, fine or half fine, per ct. 15
Articles embroidered in gold or silver, fine or half fine, when finished, other than clothing, per cent 20
Watches, or parts thereof not specified,.....per cent 7½
Golo Shoes, or Clogs, of Wood, per cent 30
Do. do. Leather,.....per cent 35
Gowns, made up by hand, of whatever material,.....per cent 50
Grapes,.....per cent 20
Grass Bags,.....per cent 25
Cables or Cordage, Untarred, lb. 4½
Cloth,.....per cent 25
Flats and Braids, for bonnets, per cent 35
Hats or Bonnets,.....per cent 35
Mats,.....per cent 25
Grass—Manilla, Sisal, or Coiar, ton 25 00
Grindstones,..... free
Guava Jelly,.....per cent 25
Guernsey Frocks, Wove,...per cent 30
Gunny Bags, Cloth, ...sq. yard 5
Gusiacum, (*See gum.*)
Guitars,.....per cent 30
Strings, Catgut,.....per cent 15
Gum Elastic, Crude,..... free
All articles manufactured therefrom,.....per cent 30
Gum Benzoin or Benjamin, Frankincense, Myrrh, Galbanum, Gamboge,.....per cent 15
Arabic, Assafœtida, Shellac, Tragacanth, Senegal, Caoutchouc, Lac Dye,..... free
Gums and other resinous substances, when not crude, and not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 25
Guns, except Muskets and Rifles, per cent 30
Gun Locks,.....per cent 30
Gunpowder,.....pound 8
Gypsum, Plaster of Paris,..... free
Hackles,.....per cent 30
Hair, Angora, Goats' and Camels'-hair,.....per pound 1
Made up for headdresses, such as Bracelets, Chains, Ringlets, Curls, Braids,.....per cent 25
Belts, Gloves, Nets,.....per cent 25
Human Hair, cleaned and prepared for use,.....per cent 25
Do. and other, uncleaned and unmanufactured,.....per cent 10
Haircloth, or Seating,.....per cent 25
Curled, for mattresses,....per cent 10
Hats,.....per cent 35
Powder, perfumed or not, per cent 20
Pencils, for Drawing,.....per cent 20
Harness, or Saddlery,.....per cent 30
Hammers, Blacksmiths',.....pound 2½
All others not specified...per cent 30
Handkerchiefs, Cotton, Linen, or Grass, according to materials—
But if made up or finished by hand,.....per cent 40
Hangers,.....per cent 30
Hangings of Paper for walls, or in patterns for fireboards,....per cent 35
Hardware—Articles made of the different metals, not otherwise enumerated, or of which the metals form a component part, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 30
Hare's Hair, or Fur, (*See fur.*)
Hareskins, Undressed,.....per cent 5
Dressed,.....per cent 25
Harlem Oil,.....per cent 20
Harness Furniture,.....per cent 30
Common tanned or japanned Saddlery,.....per cent 20
Other articles of Saddlery, per cent 30
Harps and Harpsichords,....per cent 30
Strings, Gut,.....per cent 15
Wire, Brass, or Copper,.....do. 25
Wire, Silvered or Plated,...do. 30
Hartshorn, or Ammonia,....per cent 20
Hatchets, Handled or not,...per cent 30
Hat Bodies, in whole or in part wool,.....each 18
Hats or Bonnets, for men, or women, or children, of Leghorn, or any other vegetable substance, per cent 35
of Hair, Whalebone, or Leather, per cent 35
of Fur, or Caps,.....per cent 35
of Cotton Cloth, made up, per ct. 40
Silk or Satin, for men,.....each 1 00
" " for women,....each 2 00
of Wool,..... each 18
Hat Bodies or Felts, made in whole or in part of wool, each 18
Hautboys,.....per cent 30
Head Dresses, or ornaments made of hair,.....per cent 25
of Silk, (*See silk.*)
Head Matter, (*See oil.*)
Hearth Rugs, all kinds,.....per cent 40
Hemp Seed,.....per cent 20
" " Oil,.....gallon 25
" All manufactures of, not otherwise specified,...per cent 20
" Raw, or unmanufact'd, ton 40 00
Herrings, Pickled or Salted in barrels,.....barrel 1 50
In kegs, or otherwise,....per cent 20
Smoked or Dry,.....112 lbs. 1 00
Hides, Raw or Salted, of all kinds, per cent 5
Tanned, (*See leather.*)
Hinges, Butt, Cast Iron,.....pound 2½
" Other,.....per cent 30

Hobbyhorses, Wood,.....per cent 30
Other, according to materials.
Hods, Coal, metallic,.....per cent 30
Hoes,.....per cent 30
Hones,.....per cent 20
Honey and Honeywater,...per cent 20
Hooks, Fish,.....per cent 30
Hooks and Eyes, metallic, per cent 30
Reaping, or Sickles, iron or steel, per cent 30
Hoop Iron,.....pound 2½
" " ready for use,...per cent 30
Hops,.....per cent 20
Horn Combs of all kinds,...per cent 25
Horn Tips,.....per cent 5
" Plates, for lanterns, per cent 20
" Ox, and other horns, per cent 5
Horse Hair, Uncleaned and Unmanufactured,.....per cent 10
Hosiery—Woollen, or Cotton, or Worsted,.....per cent 30
Hose Leather,.....per cent 35
Hosiery, Linen Thread,.....per cent 25
Household Furniture, of persons who come to reside in the U. States, pay according to the materials of which they are composed.
Human Hair, Uncleaned or Unmanufactured,.....per cent 10
Hydriodate of Potash,.....per cent 20
Hydrometers of Glass, (*See glass.*)
Imitation of Precious Stones, other than Glass,.....per cent 7½
Do. Glass (*See glass.*)
India Grass,.....ton 25 00
India Rubber, in bottles, sheets, or otherwise Unmanufactured,..... free
Suspenders, if costing less than $2 per doz., to be valued at $2, per cent 30
All manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 30
Indigo,.....pound 5
Indian Meal,.....per 112 lbs. 20
Ink and Ink Powder,.....per cent 25
Inkstands, Earthen or Metallic, p. c. 30
" Leather,.....per cent 35
" Glass, (*See glass.*)
Instruments, Philosophical, not specially imported, duty according to materials of which composed.
Specially imported,..... free
Instruments, Musical, all kinds, p. c. 30
Iodine,.....per cent 20
Ipecachuana,.....per cent 20
Iris Root, or Orris Root,..... free
Iron Anchors and parts thereof, manufactured in whole or in part, pound 2½
Anvils, Wrought,.....pound 2½
" Cast, ...pound 1
Axletrees, or parts thereof, pound 4
Bars or Bolts, made wholly or in part by rolling,.....ton 25 00
Iron—Bars or Bolts, not manufact. in whole or in part by rolling, ton 17 00
Blooms, Loops, Slabs, or other form less finished than iron in bars or bolts, and more advanc'd than pig iron, (except castings,) shall be rated as iron in bars or bolts, and pay duty accordingly.
Provided also—That iron imported prior to the third day of March, 1843, in bars or otherwise, for railways or inclined planes, shall be entitled to the benefits of existing laws exempting it from duty, on proof of its having been actually and permanently laid down for use on any railway or inclined plane prior to the third day of March, 1843, and all such iron imported from and after the date aforesaid, shall be subject to and pay the duty on rolled iron.
In Pigs,.....ton 9 00
Vessels of Cast Iron, not otherwise specified,.....pound 1½
Castings of Iron, all other, do. do. pound 1
Glazed or Tinned Hollow Ware and Castings, and Sad Irons or Smoothing Irons,.....pound 2½
Hatters' and Tailors' Press'g Irons, pound 2½
Cast Iron Butt Hinges,.....pound 2½
Wire of Iron or Steel, not exceeding No. 14,.....pound 5
Do. do. over 14, not over 25, lb. 8
Do. do. over 25,.....pound 11
Do. if silvered or plated, per cent 30
Iron Round or Square, or Braziers' Rods of 3-16ths to 10-16ths of an inch diameter, inclusive, lb. 2½
Iron Nail or Spike Rods, and Nail Plates, slit, rolled, or hammer'd, pound 2½
Iron in sheets, (except Taggers' iron,).....pound 2½
Hoop Iron,.....pound 2½
Iron, Slit, Rolled, or Hammered, for band iron,.....pound 2½
Scroll Iron, or Casement Rods, lb. 2½
Cables, or Chains, or parts thereof, manufactured in whole or in part, of whatever diameter; the link being of the form peculiar to chains for cables,.....pound 2½
On all other chains of iron, not otherwise specifi'd, the links being twist'd or straight, and when straight of greater length than those used in chains for cables, per cent 30
Blacksmiths' Hammers,.....pound 2½
" Sledges,.....pound 2½

Iron—Spikes, cut or wrought,....lb. 3
Cut Nails,.....pound 3
Nails, wrou'ht iron, and Axletrees, or parts thereof,.....pound 4
Mill Irons and Mill Cranks, of wrought iron,.....pound 4
Wrought Iron, for ships, locomotives, and steam engines, pound 4
Iron Chains, other than chain cables,.....pound 4
Malleable Iron or Castings, pound 4
Tubes or Pipes for steam, gas, or water, made of band or rolled iron,.....pound 5
Mill Saws, Crosscut Saws, and Pit Saws,.....each 1 00
Taggers' Iron,.....per cent 5
Provided—That all articles partially manufactured, not otherwise provided for, shall pay the same rate of duty as if wholly manufactured:
Provided also—That articles manufactured from steel, sheet, rod, hoop, or other kinds of iron, shall not pay a less duty than is chargeable on the material of which it is composed, in whole or in part, paying the highest rate of duty, either by weight or value, and a duty of 15 per cent ad valorem on the cost of the article added thereto.
Old or Scrap Iron,.....ton 10 00
Note—Nothing to be deemed Old Iron that has not been in actual use, and fit only to be remanufactured; and all pieces of iron, (except old) of more than six inches in length, or of sufficient length to be made into spikes and bolts, shall be rated as Bar, Bolt, Rod, or Hoop Iron, as the case may be, and pay duty accordingly.
Provided also—That all vessels of cast iron, and all castings of iron, not rough as from the mould, but partially manufactured after the casting, or with handles, rings, hoops, or other additions of wrought iron, shall pay the same duty as herein imposed on other manufactures of wrought iron not herein enumerated, if that shall amount to more than the duty on castings.
All manufactures of iron, steel, or other metals, partly finished, shall pay the same rate of duty as if entirely finished.
Knitting, Netting, Sewing, Darning, Tambouring, and all other kinds of Needles,.....per cent 20
Iron—All manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated, of which iron is a component part, a duty of per cent 30
Tinned and Japanned Saddlery of all descriptions,.....per cent 20
Iron Liquor,.....per cent 20
Screws, called Wood Screws, lb. 12
Screws of Iron, all other, per cent 30
Scythes and Sickles,.....per cent 30
Shovels and Spades,.....per cent 30
Shot,.....pound 1
Combs for the Hair,.....per cent 25
Cap or Bonnet Wire, if covered with silk,.....pound 12
Do. do. covered with cotton,...lb. 8
Do. do. with thread, or other materials,.....pound 8
Isinglass, or Mica, for lanterns,...lb. 20
Issue Peas, } .....per cent 20
Issue Plaster, }
Ivory, as Elephants' Teeth,..... free
Manufactures of,.....per cent 20
Black or Bone Black,.....pound ¾
Jacks, part of pianoforte,....per cent 30
" Clothiers',.....per cent 30
Jack Screws,.....per cent 30
Jack Chains,.....pound 4
Jalap, ...per cent 20
Japanned and Common Tin Saddlery, of all kinds,.....per cent 20
Wares, other, not specified, per ct. 30
Jellies,.....per cent 30
Jerk Beef,.....pound 2
Jet, Real,.....per cent 20
" Composition,.....per cent 20
Jewelry of Gold, Silver, or Platina, and Gold and Silver Leaf, p.c. 20
Gilt, Plated, or Imitation, per cent 25
Joints, India, Rough,..... free
Made into canes, wholly or partly finished, ...per cent 30
Jostick or Jos Light,.....per cent 20
Juice of Lemons, Limes, or Oranges, per cent 20
Jujube Paste,.....per cent 30
Juniper Berries,.....per cent 20
Junk, Old,..... free
Kaleidescopes,.....per cent 30
Kalydor, a Cosmetic,.....per cent 25
Kelp, ... free
Kentledge, (*See iron*).....ton 10 00
Kermes, ... free
Kettles—Brass Battery, or Hammered,.....pound 12
Cast Iron, Glazed or Tinned,...lb. 2½
Other, of Cast Iron,.....pound 1½
Tin or Copper,.....per cent 30
Brass Cast,.....per cent 30
Keys, of all kinds,.....per cent 30
Kid Skins, or Morocco, Tanned and Dressed, ...dozen 1 50
Tanned and Not Dressed, dozen 75
Dressed and Not Colored, dozen 1 00

Kirschen Wasser or Water,...gallon 60
Knitting Needles,.....per cent 20
Knives, Cutting, for hay or straw, p.c. 30
Drawing, Currying, and others, p.c. 30
Knobs of Metal,.....per cent 30
" of Glass, (*See glass.*)
Knockers, of metal,.....per cent 30
Labels—printed. (*See paper.*)
For decanters, of metal...per cent 30
Lac-Dye,..... free
Lace—Thread and Insertings, pr. ct. 15
Gold, silver, fine or half fine, p.ct. 15
Silk,.....per lb. 2 50
Bobbinet,.....per cent 20
Cotton Laces, Quillings and Insertings, usually known as Trimming Laces,.....per cent 20
Fabrics for wear, made up by the needle,.....per cent 40
Veils, Silk,.....per lb. 2 50
Lacquered Ware,.....per cent 30
Ladies' Worked Caps, trimmed or not,.....per cent 40
Ladles, of all sorts,.....per cent 30
Lake, a paint,.....per cent 20
Lampblack,.....per cent 20
Lamps—of metal,.....per cent 30
Glass. (*See glass.*)
Lancets,.....per cent 30
Lancet Cases,.....per cent 25
Lantern Leaves, or horn plates, p.ct. 20
Lapis Calaminaris, or Spelter, pr. ct. 20
do. Infernalis and Tutia,...per cent 20
Lard,.....per lb. 3
Lastings,.....per cent 20
If lastings, prunellas, and similar fabrics, not specified, shall be imported in stripe, pieces, or patterns of the size and shape suitable for the manufacture, exclusively, of buttons, shoes, or bootees, it shall pay per cent 5
Latches,.....per cent 30
Lamb-Skins—tanned and dressed, per dozen 1 50
Tann'd and not dressed, per dozen 75
Tann'd and dress'd, not color'd, " 1 00
Laudanum,.....per cent 25
Lavender and do. Flowers, pr. cent 20
Lead—in pigs and bars,.....per lb. 3
Old and scrap,.....per lb. 1½
Pipes, shot, and lead in sheets, or in any other form not herein specified,.....per lb. 4
Combs, for the hair,.....per cent 25
Acetate, or Chromate of, or Litharge or White Lead, dry or ground in oil,.....per lb. 4
Black Lead Pencils and Crayons, per cent 25
Busts,.....per lb. 4
Type Metal, or Stereotype Plates, per cent 25
Types, new or old,.....per cent 25
Lead Pots, Black or Crucibles, pr. ct. 20
Ore,.....per cent 20
Leather—Tann'd, Sole, or Bend, p.lb. 6
Upper, not otherwise specified, " 8
Patent,.....per cent 35
Gloves, men's,.....per dozen 1 25
Manufactures of, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 35
Leaves of trees, for dyeing,..... free
Not used for dyeing,.....per cent 20
Palm,..... free
Leeches,..... free
Lees of Wine, liquid,.....per cent 20
Crystallized as Tartar,..... free
Leghorn Hats, Bonnets, and Caps, and all parts thereof, such as flats, braids, plaits, crowns, and brims, per cent 35
Lemons—in bulk,..... free
In boxes, or otherwise,...per cent 20
Lemon—Oil of,.....per cent 20
Juice,.....per cent 20
Peel,.....per cent 20
Essence of,.....per cent 25
Lents, or Lentils,..... free
Leopard Skins, raw or dressed, pr.ct. 20
Limes—in bulk,..... free
Otherwise,.....per cent 20
Juice, and Oil of,.....per cent 20
Lime, Acetate of, or Citrate of, pr.ct. 20
Lines, Fishing—Hemp,.....per cent 20
Flax,.....per cent 25
Silk, cotton, or worsted,..per cent 30
Linens—bleached, or unbleached, or colored, and all manufactures of flax, not otherwise specified, pr.ct. 25
Tape,.....per cent 25
Handkerchiefs, if made up by hand,.....per cent 40
Linseed,.....per cent 5
Oil of, cakes, and meal,...per cent 20
Lint, cotton,.....per cent 30
Liqueurs, Cordial,.....per gallon 60
Liquor, Iron, Purple, Bronze, Red, and Seppia,.....per cent 20
Liquor Cases, wood,.....per cent 30
Bottles of. (*See glass.*)
Liquorice—Paste,.....per cent 25
Root,..... free
Juice,.....per cent 20
Litharge, dry or ground in oil, per lb. 4
Loadstones,.....per cent 20
Loaf-Sugar, or pulverized,.....per lb. 6
If syrup of sugar-cane be entered under the denomination of molasses, or any other appellation than syrup of sugar or of sugar-cane, it is liable to forfeiture.
Lotions—Cosmetics,.....per cent 25
Medicinal,.....per cent 20
Lozenges,.....per cent 20
Locks, made of metal or wood, p. ct. 30
Logwood,..... free
Extract of,.....per cent 25

Lookingglasses, according to size or weight. (*See glass.*)
Lookingglass Frames—if gilt, on metal,.....per cent 30
If wood, or gilt on wood, per cent 30
If metal,.....per cent 30
Lump-Sugar,.....per lb. 6
Lunar Caustic,.....per cent 20
Lustres—cut glass,.....per lb. 45
Other, according to materials of which they are made.
Lutes, musical instrument,..per cent 30
Licopodium,.....per cent 20
Lye, Soda,.....per cent 20
Macaroni,.....per cent 30
Mace,.....per lb. 50
Maccassar Oil, cosmetic,...per cent 25
Machinery, models of, and other inventions,..... free
Mackerel, pickled,.....per barrel 1 50
Madder, and Madder Root,..... free
Magic Lanterns, and similar articles composed of tin, glass, copper, wood, &c.,.....per cent 30
Magnesia,.....per cent 20
Carbonate of,.....per cent 20
Sulphate of, or Epsom Salts, pr. ct. 20
Mahogany,.....per cent 15
Maize,.....per bush. 10
Mallets, of wood,.....per cent 30
Malt,.....per cent 20
Manganese,.....per cent 20
Manilla Grass, or Hemp,....per ton 25 00
Manufactured Tobacco, other than snuff and cigars,.....per lb. 10
Manufactures of the United States and territories,..... free
do. of Iron, partly finished, liable to the same rate of duty as if finished,.....per cent 30
Manufactures of the following articles not otherwise enumerat'd—
Brass,.....per cent 30
Bell Metal,.....per cent 30
Bronze,.....per cent 30
Cork,.....per cent 25
Copper,.....per cent 30
Cotton,.....per cent 30
Flax,.....per cent 25
Fur,.....per cent 35
Glass,.....per cent 25
Goats' Hair, or Mohair,...per cent 20
Gold,.....per cent 30
German Silver,.....per cent 30
Horse Hair & Human Hair, pr.ct. 25
Hemp,.....per cent 20
Iron,.....per cent 30
Indiarubber,.....per cent 30
Lead,.....per cent 30
Leather,.....per cent 35
Marble,.....per cent 30
Pewter,.....per cent 30
Ozier, Palmleaf, Willow, and Straw,.....per cent 25
Manufactures of—
Steel,.....per cent 30
Silver,.....per cent 30
Silk,.....per 16 ounces 2 50
Tin,.....per cent 30
Worsted, or Combed Wool, pr. ct. 30
Wool,.....per cent 40
Worsted and Silk,.....per cent 30
Zinc,.....per cent 30
Stone,.....per cent 30
Maps and Charts,.....per cent 20
Marble Busts, not specially imported,.....per cent 30
Unmanufactured,.....per cent 25
Marbles, for children's play,per cent 30
do. Stone,.....per cent 30
Marmalade,.....per cent 30
Marrowgrease, for soap,.....per cent 10
Mastic,.....per cent 15
Matches, for pocket lights,..per cent 30
Mathematical Instruments, specially imported,..... free
Ivory and bone,.....per cent 20
All other,.....per cent 30
Mats, Table and other, of whatever materials composed,.....per cent 25
Matting, Floor, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 25
Mattresses, Hair—duty to be assessed on material on which the highest duty is paid. See section 20 of tariff.
Moss, do. do. do.
Meal, Indian,.....per 112 lbs. 20
Oatmeal,.....per cent 20
Meats, preserved, or prepared in cases,.....per cent 25
Measures, glass,engrav'd. (*See glass.*)
Mercury,and preparations therefrom. per cent 25
Merino Shawls, made of combed wool,.....per cent 30
Metal, plated,.....per cent 30
Metallic Slates, paper or tin, per cent 30
Plus,.....per cent 30
Merino Cloth, entirely of combed wool,.....per cent 30
Mica, or Isinglass,.....per cent 20
Millinery, of all kinds,.....per cent 40
Millsaws,.....each 1 00
Millstones—rough,..... free
Made up,.....per cent 20
Mills, Coffee,.....per cent 30
Miniature Cases, ivory,.....per cent 20
do. Sheets, ivory,....per cent 20
Mineralogy, specimens of,..... free
Mitts, cotton, woollen,.....per cent 30
Modelling, specially imported,..... free
Not specially imported, according to materials of which they are composed.
Models of inventions,..... free
Mohair—Camblets, Blankets, Coatings, and all other manufactures

of goats' hair or mohair, per ct. 20
Twist, or Twist composed of mohair and silk,.....per lb. 2 00
Molasses,.....per lb., (mills) 4½
Morocco Skins tanned and dress'd—
Goats'.....per dozen 2 50
Kid,.....per dozen 1 50
Morphine,.....per cent 20
Mortars, Apothecaries', composition, brass, wood, marble, or stone, pr.ct. 30
Moss, Iceland,.....per cent 20
For Mattresses,.....per cent 10
Mother of Pearl, and Shells,..... free
Articles made of pearl, not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 20
Moulds, Button,.....per cent 25
Mouse Traps, wood or wire, per cent 30
Muffs, fur,.....per cent 35
Mules,.....per cent 20
Muriates, Gold, Tin, and Strontian, per cent 20
Muriatic Acid, white or yellow, pr.ct. 20
Music Paper, with lines,....per cent 25
Bound in b'ks, in the Eng. lang. lb. 20
Musical Instruments, of all kinds, per cent 30
Instrument Strings, Catgut, pr. ct. 15
Mushroom Sauce,.....per cent 30
Musk,.....per cent 20
Muskets,.....per stand 1 50
Parts of,.....per cent 30
Mustard, ground,.....per cent 25
Seed,.....per cent 5
Myrrh, crude,.....per cent 15
Not crude,.....per cent 25
Nails, iron, cut,.....per lb. 3
Wrought, iron,.....per lb. 4
Brass,.....per cent 30
Copper,.....per lb. 4
Zinc,.....per cent 30
Nail Rods, iron, slit, rolled, or hammered,.....per lb. 2½
Plates,.....per lb. 2½
Neatsfoot Oil, and all animal oils, per cent 20
Needles of all kinds,.....per cent 20
Nets, Fishing and Dip, (not seines,) hemp,.....per cent 20
Nickel,..... free
Nitre, crude,..... free
Partially refined,.....per lb. ½
Wholly refined,.....per lb. 2
Noyeau,.....per gallon 60
Nutgalls,..... free
Nutmegs,.....per lb. 30
Nutria Skins. (*See skins.*)
Nuts of all kinds, except for dyeing, per lb. 1
Nux Vomica,..... free
Oakum and Junk,..... free
Oats,.....per bushel 10
Oatmeal,.....per cent 20
Ochre, dry,.....per lb. 1
Ground in oil,.....per lb. 1½
Ochre, Brown, Blue, Red, & Yellow Earths, for paints, to be considered as Ochres.
Oilcloth—Floor, printed, painted, or stamped,.....per square yard 35
Furniture, made on Canton or cotton flannel,.....per square yard 16
Other furniture oilcloth, pr. sqr. yd. 10
Of linen, silk, or other materials, used for hat covers, aprons, coach curtains, or similar purposes,—per square yard 12½
Medicated,.....per square yard 12½
Aprons, Hat Covers, &c., made up by hand,.....per cent 40
Oil—Harlæm,.....per cent 20
Palm,..... free
Of Cloves,.....per lb 30
Linseed, Hempseed, and Rapeseed,.....per gallon 25
Animal and Neatsfoot,...per cent 20
Maccassar, a cosmetic,...per cent 25
All other essential oils, not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 20
Castor, or Palma Christi, per gal. 40
Olive, in casks,.....per gallon 20
do. in bottles, or betties, pr. ct. 30
All other olive oils, not salad and not otherwise specified, per cent 20
Spermaceti, of foreign fisheries,—per gallon 25
Whale, or other fish oil not sperm oil,.....per gallon 15
Sweet, of Almonds,.....per lb. 9
Stones,.....per cent 20
Old—or Scrap Iron, having been actually in use, and fit only to be remanufactured,.....per ton 10 00
Brass, Copper, and Pewter,..... free
Lead,.....per lb. 1½
Olives,.....per cent 30
Opium,.....per lb. 75
Oranges, not in bulk,.....per cent 20
Orange Peel,.....per cent 20
Ores, specimens of Copper..... free
Other, not oth'rwise specified, p.ct. 20
Organs,.....per cent 30
Ornaments—of Alabaster, or Spar, per cent 30
Other, according to materials of which composed.
Ornamental Feathers, for headdresses or parts thereof,.....per cent 25
Orpiment,.....per cent 20
Orrisroot,..... free
Ostrich Plumes, real or artificial,—per cent 25
Otto of Roses, or Oil of Roses, pr. ct. 25
Oysters,.....per cent 20
Packthread,.....per lb. 6
Paint Brushes,.....per cent 30
Paintings on Glass,.....per cent 30
Other,.....per cent 20
Specially imported,..... free

Paintings of American artists,..... free
Paints—Ochrey Earths, used in the composition of painters' colors, dry,.....per lb. 1
do. ground in oil,.....per lb. 1½
White Lead,.....per lb. 4
Paris White,.....per lb. 1
Not otherwise enumerated, per ct. 20
Palmleaves,..... free
Pamphlets. (*See books.*)
Pannel Saws,.....per cent 30
Paper—Bank Folio, Quarto Post of all kinds, Letter, & Bank Note, per lb. 17
Antiquarian, Demy, Drawi'g, Elephant, and Double Elephant, Foolscap, Imperial, Medium, Pot, Pith, Royal, Super Royal, and Writing,.....per lb. 15
Copperplate, Blotting, Copying, Colored, for labels and needles, Marbled, Fancy Colored, Morocco, Pasteboard, Pressing B'ds, Sand Paper, Tissue Paper, and all gold and silver paper, whether in sheets or strips,.....per lb. 12½
Paper Gilt, or covered with metal other than gold or silver, pr. ct. 25
Colored Copperplate, Printing, and Stainers,.....per lb. 10
Binders' Boards, Box Boards, Mill Boards, Papermakers' Boards, Sheathing, Wrapping, and Cartridge,.....per lb. 3
All paper envelopes, wheth'r plain, ornamental, or colored,...per ct. 30
All Billetdoux,.....per cent 30
Fancy Note Paper, of whatever form or size, when of less size than letter-paper,.....per cent 30
Music Paper, with lines, Paper Snuff-Boxes, japanned or not, and other fancy paper boxes,—per cent 25
Paper Maché, articles made of, pr.ct. 30
Paper Hangings, or paper for Screens, or Fireboards, per cent 35
Blank, or Visiting Cards,...per lb. 12
Playing Cards,.....per pack 25
Asses Skin, and imitation thereof, per cent 25
On all other paper not otherwise enumerated,.....per lb. 15
Engravings or Plates, bound or unbound, in books, with or without letter-press,.....per cent 20
Maps and Charts,.....per cent 20
Parasols, Umbrellas, and Sun Shades, silk or cotton,.....per cent 30
do. Frames or Sticks,...per cent 30
Parchment, or Vellum,.....per cent 25
Pastel, or Woad,.....per lb. 1
Paste, Jujube and other,....per cent 30
Paste Work—imitation of jewelry, " 7½
Paste, Almond,.....per cent 25
Paving Tiles,.....per cent 25
Stones,.....per cent 20
Pearl, Mother of,..... free
Pearls—precious stones, not set, p.ct. 7
Mock,.....per cent 7½
Set as jewelry. (*See jewelry.*)
Pearl, Barley or hulled, ...per lb. 2
Peas,.....per cent 20
Pencils—black and red lead, per ct. 25
Camels' hair,.....per cent 20
Pencil Cases of all kinds,...per cent 30
Penknives,.....per cent 30
Pens, Metallic,.....per cent 30
Pepper, Black,.....per lb. 5
Cayenne, African, and Chili, pr.lb. 10
Perfumery,.....per cent 25
Uncut Vials and Bottles, not exceeding 4 ounces each,...pr. gro. 2 50
Exceeding 4, and not exceeding 16 ounces,.....per gross 3 00
Percussion Caps,.....per cent 30
Peruvian Bark,..... free
Pestles and Mortars, stone, marble, and composition,.....per cent 30
Petticoats, ready made, by hand, " 50
Pewter,.....per cent 20
Articles of, or of which it forms a component part, not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 30
Old and only fit to be remanufactured,..... free
Philosophical Apparatus—specially imported for any society established for scientific and literary purposes,..... free
Not so imported, to pay duty according to materials of which composed.
Phosphorus,.....per cent 20
Lights, in glass bottles. (*See glass.*)
Pianofortes.....per cent 30
Pickles, Capers and Sauces, per cent 30
Pimento,.....per lb. 5
Pin Cases—metallic,.....per cent 30
Bone, Ivory, Pearl,.....per cent 20
Cushions, made up by hand, pr.ct. 40
Pink, Dutch,.....per cent 20
Pink Saucers,.....per cent 30
Pins—called Pound Pins,....per lb. 20
Solid headed, and all other package Pins, not exceeding 5000 to the pack of 12 papers,.....pack 40
Greater or less quantity, same proportion.
Pipes—Smoking, Clay,.....per cent 20
Stone, do.....per cent 30
Wooden, (casks).....per cent 30
Pit-Saws,.....each 1 00
Pitch, Burgundy,.....per cent 20
Plaits, of straw or any vegetable substances for making bonnets, pr. ct. 35
Planks, rough,.....per cent 30
Plantain Bark,.....ton 25 00

Plaster of Paris—unground,..... free
Plaster of Paris—ground,....per cent 20
Court,.....per cent 30
Busts of, and Ornaments, per cent 20
Platapina,.....per cent 20
Plate, Silver, metal plated in sheets, per cent 30
Plated Carriage and Harness Furniture,.....per cent 30
Epaulettes, Moulding, or Wire, per cent 30
Plates, Copper, suitable for sheathing ships, that is, 14 by 48 in., and weighing 14 to 34 ounces per square foot,..... free
Plates of Copper, prepared for the engraver,.....per cent 30
Platina, not manufactured,..... free
" Crucibles,.....per cent 20
Playing Cards,.....pack 25
Plumes, Artificial or Real, per cent 25
Pocket Books, Leather,.....per cent 35
Polishing Stones,..... free
Pomatum,.....per cent 25
Pomegranates, Preserved,...per cent 25
Peel of,.....per cent 20
Poppies,.....per cent 20
Porcelain,.....per cent 30
Pork,.....pound 2
Porphyry,.....per cent 20
Portable Desks,.....per cent 30
Porter, in bottles, (bottles pay no duty,).....gallon 20
[By a circular from the comptroller, Nov. 23, 1838, twelve common porter bottles are estimated to contain 2¼ gallons porter.]
Porter, other than in bottles, gallon 15
Potash, (and Chromate and Bi-Chromate of,).....per cent 20
Pots, Black Lead,.....per cent 20
Poultry, Preserv'd and Prepar'd, p.c. 25
Pounce,.....per cent 20
Potatoes,.....bushel 10
Powder—Bronze, or Black Lead, per cent 20
Gun,.....pound 8
Hair,.....per cent 20
Ink,.....per cent 25
Powder Puffs,.....per cent 30
Precipitate, Red,.....per cent 25
Precious Stones,.....per cent 7
Imitations thereof, and compositions of glass, or paste on cameos, and imitations thereof, p. c. 7½
Preparations, Chemical, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 20
Preserves, Comfits, and Sweetmeats, preserved in sugar or brandy, p.c. 25
Prints or Plates,.....per cent 20
Prunes,..... .pound 3
Punk, or Spunk,.....per cent 20
Pumice Stone,..... free
Purple Tin Liquor,.....per cent 20
Putty,.....pound 1½
Pyroligneous Acid,.....per cent 20
Quadrants and Sextants,....per cent 30
Quassia, in sticks,..... free
Quicksilver,.....per cent 5
Quills, Not Prepared,.....per cent 15
Prepared,.....per cent 25
Quinine, and Sulphate of,.....ounce 40
Rags, of every kind,.....pound ¼
Raisins, Muscatel or Bloom, in boxes or jars,.....pound 3
All other,.....pound 2
Rape Seed Oil,.....gallon 25
Rattans, Unmanufactured,..... free
Raven's Duck,.....square yard 7
Raw Silk,.....pound 50
Razors,.....per cent 30
Razor Cases and Strops, Metal or Wood,.....per cent 30
of Leather,.....per cent 35
of Paper,.....per cent 25
Red Lead,.....pound 4
Sanders,.....per cent 30
Liquor, or Seppia,.....per cent 20
Reeds, Unmanufactured,..... free
Manufactured,.....per cent 30
Reticules, if made up by hand, p. c. 40
Rhubarb,..... free
Ribbons, Silk or Satin,.....16 oz. 2 50
Rice,.....per cent 20
Rifles,.....each 2 50
Rings, Metallic,.....per cent 30
Gold, (*See jewelry.*)
Rochelle Salts,.....per cent 20
Rocoa,.....per cent 20
Rods, Braziers', of 3-16ths to 10-16th of an inch diameter, inclusive, lb. 2½
Roman Cement,.....per cent 20
Vitriol, Sulphate of Copper, per c. 20
Rope, made of hides,.....per cent 20
Roots of all kinds, (not otherwise specified,)..... free
Rosewood,.....per cent 15
Rosin,.....per cent 15
Rottenstone,..... free
Rouge, Cosmetic,.....per cent 25
Rubies,.....per cent 7
Rugs, Woollen,.....per cent 40
Hearth, all sorts,.....per cent 40
Rules, Metallic or Wood,...per cent 30
Bone or Ivory,.....per cent 20
Rum—First and Second Proof, gall. 60
Third,.....gallon 65
Fourth,.....gallon 70
Fifth,.....gallon 75
Above Fifth,.....gallon 90
Cherry,.....gallon 60
Russia Crash,.....per cent 20
Duck,.....square yard 7
Diaper and Sheetings,...per cent 20
Rye,.....bushel 15
Sabres,.....per cent 30
Saddlery, composed of metals, p. c. 30
Common Tin'd and Japan'd, p. c. 20

Saddles,.....per cent 35
Saddle Trees,.....per cent 30
Sad Irons,.....pound 2½
Saffron,.....per cent 20
Sago,.....per cent 20
Sail Duck,.....square yard 7
Sal Ammoniac,.....per cent 20
Salad Oil, in Bottles or Betties, per cent 30
Salmon, pickled in barrels,.....bbl. 2 00
Dry or Smoked,.....112 lbs. 1 00
Sal Soda,.....per cent 20
Salt,.....56 lbs. 8
Salts—Epsom, Glauber, and Rochelle,.....per cent 20
Saltpetre or Nitrate of Potash, Crude, free
Partially Refined,.....pound ¼
Wholly Refined,.....pound 2
Sand Stones,.....per cent 20
Sardines, in oil,.....per cent 20
Sarsaparilla,..... free
Sassafras,..... free
Satin Wood,..... 15
Sauces, of all kinds not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 30
Saucepans, Metallic,.....per cent 30
Sausages, Bologna,.....per cent 25
Saws—Mill, Crosscut, and Pit, each 1 00
Scagliola Tables, or slabs inlaid, etc. per cent 30
Scalebeams,.....per cent 30
Scrap or Old Lead,.....pound 1½
" " Old Iron,.....ton 10 00
Screws, Brass,.....pound 30
Wood, so called, made of iron, lb. 12
All other, not otherwise specified, per cent 30
Sealskins, Tan'd and Dress'd, dozen 5 00
Sealing Wax,.....per cent 25
Seines,.....pound 7
Seppia, or Iron Liquor,.....per cent 20
Seneca Root,..... free
Sewing Silk,.....16 oz. 2 00
Sheepskins, Tan'd and Dres'd, doz. 2 00
Do. do. and Not Dressed,.....doz. 1 00
Shell, Tortoise,.....per cent 5
Shell and Fancy Boxes, not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 25
Sextants, according to materials.
Shades, Sun, Silk,.....per cent 30
Shaddocks, otherwise than in bulk, per cent 20
Shaving Soap,.....per cent 30
Shawls, Silk,.....pound 2 50
Sheathing Copper, in sheets of 14 by 48 inches, weighing 14 to 34 ounces to the square foot,..... free
Sheathing Metal, composed partly of copper,.....pound 2
Sheet Brass, Rolled,.....per cent 30
Sheets, Willow, used in making bonnets,.....per cent 35
Sheetings, Linen,.....per cent 25
Russia Hemp,.....per cent 20
Shellac,..... free
Shells, Cocoa,.....per cent 20
Other,.....per cent 20
Shirts made up by hand,.....per cent 50
Wove,.....per cent 30
Shoe Horns,.....per cent 20
" Thread,.....per cent 25
Shoes, Horse,.....per cent 30
Shoes or Pumps, Men's, wholly or partially manufactured,.....pair 30
Shoes, Boots, or Bootees, Children's, wholly or in part manufact'd, pair 15
Shoes or Slippers, Women's, wholly or partly manufactured of leather, prunella, or other material, except silk,.....pair 25
Also—Women's Double Soled Pumps and Welts, wholly or partly manufactured,.....pair 40
Shoes or Slippers, Silk or Satin, for women or men,.....pair 30
Do. do. of India Rubber, not otherwise specified,.....pair 25
Note—Lastings, Prunellas, and similar fabrics, not specified, when imported in strips, pieces, or patterns, of the size and shape suitable for the manufacture, exclusively, of buttons, shoes, or bootees,.....per cent 5
Shot Bags and Belts, leather mounted,.....per cent 35
Shot, Iron, Cast,.....pound 1
" Lead,.....pound 4
Shovels, Iron, Steel, and Brass, per cent 30
Shrub, a Cordial,.....gallon 60
Shumac, or Sumac,..... free
Side Arms,.....per cent 30
Sieves—Wood or Wire,.....per cent 30
Hair,.....per cent 30
Silk, Raw, comprehending all silks in the gum, whether in hanks, reeled, or otherwise,.....pound 50
Bolting Cloths,.....per cent 20
Umbrellas, Parasols, Sun Shades, Caps for women, Turbans, Ornaments for headdress, Aprons, Collars, Cape, Cuffs, Braids, Curls, Frizettes, Chemisettes, Mantillas, Pelerines, and other articles made up by hand in whole or in part, and not otherwise provided for,.....per cent 30
Shirts and Drawers, made up wholly or in part,.....per cent 40
Sewing Silk, Silk Twist, or Twist composed of silk and mohair, pound 2 00
Pongees, and Plain White Silks, for printing or coloring...pound 1 50
Silk Floss, and other similar silks, purified from the gum, dyed and prepared for manufacture, per cent 25

Silk or Satin Shoes and Slippers, for women or men,.....pair 30
Silk or Satin Lac'd Boots or Bootees, for women or men,.....pair 75
Silk or Satin Shoes or Slippers, for children,.....pair 15
Silk or Satin Lac'd Boots or Bootees, for children,.....pair 25
Silk Hats, for men,.....each 1 00
Silk or Satin Hats or Bonnets, for women, ...each 2 00
All other articles of silk, made up by hand in whole or in part, and not otherwise provided for, per cent 30
Wire, covered with silk, for bonnets,.....pound 12
Silk and Worsted combined, manufactures of,.....per cent 30
If any silk manufactures shall be mixed with gold and silver or other metal,.....per cent 30
Silk and Cotton, manufactures of, to be estimated on either material which shall produce the highest duty.
Silver, Bullion,..... free
Epaulettes or Wings,..... free
Articles made up of, not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 30
Quick, (Vif Argent).....per cent 5
Nitrate of,.....per cent 20
Wire and Plated,.....per cent 30
Plated metal in sheets,...per cent 30
German, unmanufactured, per ct. 30
Leaf,.....per cent 20
Sisal Grass,.....ton 25 00
Skates,.....per cent 30
Skivers, Tanned or Dressed,...dozen 2 00
Skins of all kinds, not otherwise specified, pickled, and in casks,p.c. 20
Calf and Seal Skins, Tanned and Dressed,.....dozen 5 00
Sheep, do. do.....dozen 2 00
Goat, or Morocco, do. do...dozen 2 50
Kid Skins, or Morocco, do. do. doz. 1 50
Goat or Sheep Skins, Tanned and Not Dressed,.....dozen 1 00
Kid and Lamb, do. do.....dozen 75
Skins tanned and dressed otherwise than in color, to wit:—Fawn, Kid, and Lamb, usually known as Chamois,.....dozen 1 00
Fish, for Saddlers, other than Seal, per cent 20
Slates,.....per cent 25
Slate Pencils,.....per cent 20
Smalts,.....per cent 20
Snuff,.....pound 12
Snake Root,..... free
Soap—Castile, Fancy, Marseilles, Naples, Perfumed, Shaving, Washballs, or Windsor, per ct. 30
Other Hard Soap, not specified, lb. 4
Soap, Soft,.....barrel 50
" Stuffs and Stocks,.....per cent 10
Socks, Linen,..... per cent 25
Hemp,.....per cent 20
Woollen or Worst'd, or both, made on frames,.....per cent 30
Cotton.....per cent 30
Soda,.....per cent 20
Soda Ash,.....per cent 5
Preparations of Soda,.....per cent 20
Soles, Felt,.....per cent 40
Cork,.....per cent 25
Soy, an East India sauce,...per cent 30
Spanish Brown, Dry,.....pound 1
Ground in oil,.....pound 1½
Spanish Flies,..... free
Sparteric,.....per cent 35
Spectacles,.....per cent 30
Spectacle Cases, Metallic, per cent 30
Leather,.....per cent 35
Paper,.....per cent 25
Shell,.....per cent 20
Spectacle Glasses, not set,.....gross 2 00
Spelter,.....per cent 20
Spermaceti Oil,.....gallon 25
Spermaceti Candles, or sperm and wax mixed,.....pound 8
Spikes, Copper,.....pound 4
Iron,.....pound 3
Composition,.....per cent 30
Spike Rods,.....pound 2½
Spirits, Distilled from grain or other materials—First and Second Proof,.....gallon 60
Third Proof,.....gallon 65
Fourth Proof,.....gallon 70
Fifth Proof,.....gallon 75
Above Fifth Proof,.....gallon 90
Spirits of Turpentine,.....gallon 10
Sponges,.....per cent 20
Spoons, Metallic,.....per cent 30
Horn or Shell,.....per cent 20
Spunk or Punk, an article like tinder,.....per cent 20
Sprigs, not exceeding 16 to the thousand,.....thousand 5
Exceeding 16 to the thousand, lb. 5
Springs for wigs,.....per cent 30
Springs of Brass Wire, used for making wigs,.....per cent 30
Spy Glasses,.....per cent 30
Squares, Metallic, or Wood, per cent 30
Square Wire, used for the manufacture of stretchers for umbrellas, and cut in pieces not exceeding the proper size,.....per cent 12½
Squills or Scillæ,.....per cent 20
Starch,.....pound 2
Statues and Specimens of Statuary, specially imported,..... free
Do. do. otherwise imported, viz:—Plaster or Alabaster,.....per cent 20
Brass, Bronze, Marble, Metal, or Wood,.....per cent 30

Staves, Rough,.....per cent 20
Ready for use,.....per cent 30
Steel—Cast, Shear, or German, in bars,.....112 lbs. 1 50
All other, in bars,.....112 lbs. 2 50
Wire, not exceeding No. 14,...lb. 5
" over 14 and not ex. 25,...lb. 8
" over No. 25,.....lb. 11
Articles manufactured from steel, or steel being a component part thereof, not otherwise specified, 30
Stereotype Plates,.....per cent 25
Sticks, Walking, in rough,..... free
Finished into Canes,.....per cent 30
Or Frames for umbrellas and parasols,.....per cent 30
Stiffeners, of Hair, for cravats, per cent 20
Still Bottoms, and parts thereof, (*See copper.*).....per cent 30
Stock Locks,.....per cent 30
Stone Ware,.....per cent 30
Stones, Burr, Unwrought,..... free
" Wrought,.....per cent 20
Grind,..... free
Oil,.....per cent 20
Rotten,..... free
Polishing,..... free
Hones,.....per cent 20
Precious,.....per cent 7
Imitation of Precious,.....per cent 7½
Straining Web, Cotton,.....per cent 30
Straw Baskets,.....per cent 25
Straw Flats, Braids, Plaits, Spartere, or Willow Squares, used for making hats or bonnets,...per cent 35
Manufactures of, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 20
For hats, in its natural state, per cent 20
Straw Carpets, and Carpeting,..... 30
Matting,.....per cent 25
Stretchers for parasols or umbrellas, 30
Strings, for musical instruments, of catgut or whipgut, and all other strings or threads of similar materials,.....per cent 15
Sugar, Raw, or Brown, not advanc'd beyond its raw state by claying, boiling, clarifying, or other process,.....pound 2½
Or Syrup of Sugar, or of Sugar Cane,.....pound 2½
Brown, Clayed,.....pound 2½
All other, when advanced beyond the raw state by claying, boiling, clarifying, or other process, and not yet refined,.....pound 4
Refined, whether Loaf, Lump, Crushed, or Pulverized; and when, after being refined, they have been tinctured, colored, or in any way adulterated,...pound 6
Sugar Candy,.....pound 6

Note.—If syrup of the cane or of loaf sugar is entered as molasses, or any other appellation than syrup of sugar, it is liable to seizure and confiscation. (See regulations of comptroller of treasury.)

Sugar Molds,.....per cent 30
Sulphate of Quinine,.....ounce 40
Magnesia,.....per cent 20
Sulphur, flour of,..... free
Sulphuric Acid,.....per lb. 1
Ether,.....per cent 20
Sumac,..... free
Suspenders—Braces of all kinds except Indiarubber,.....per cent 35
Indiarubber, in no case to be valued at less than $2 per dozen, even if costing less,.....per cent 30
Suspender Webbing, of Indiarubber, per cent 30
Swans' Down,.....per cent 25
Swan Skin, undressed,.....per cent 20
Sweetmeats,.....per cent 25
Sword Blades,.....per cent 30
Knots of silver or gold lace, pr. ct. 15
do. of silk or worsted, per cent 30
Swords,.....per cent 30
Syrup of Sugar-Cane, in casks, p. lb. 2½
Tablecloths, according to materials.
Tables, with marble tops, slabs, or ornaments,.....per cent 30
Tacks, Brads, or Sprigs, not exceeding 16 oz. to the 1000,...pr. 1000 5
Over 16 ounces,.....per lb. 5
Tinned,.....per cent 30
Taggers' iron,.....per cent 5
Tallow,.....per lb. 1
Candles,.....per lb. 4
Tamarinds, preserved in sugar or molasses,.....per cent 25
Tapers, paper, cotton wick, or wax, per cent 30
Tapes—Cotton,.....per cent 30
Leather,.....per cent 35
Linen,.....per cent 25
Tailors', in silver cases,...per cent 30
Tapioca,.....per cent 20
Tarred Cordage,.....per lb. 5
Tartaric Acid,.....per cent 20
Tartar, crude,..... free
Tartar Emetic,.....per cent 20
Teas, when imported in American vessels from places of production, free
Teapots, metallic, China, or earthen,.....per cent 30
Teeth, except elephants,....per cent 5
Teazles,.....per cent 20
Telescopes,.....per cent 30
Teutenague,..... free
Boxes,.....per cent 20
Thermometers,.....per cent 30
Thimbles, metallic,.....per cent 30
Bone or ivory,.....per cent 20

Thread, Cotton, Twist, or Yarn, on spools, or otherwise, unbleached and uncolored, the true value of which, at the place whence imported, shall be less than 60 cents per lb., shall be valued at 60 cents per lb.....per cent 25
Thread, if bleached or colored, costing less than 75 cts., to be valued at 75 cents,.....per cent 25
Thread, Flax,.....per cent 25
Laces and Insertings,.....per cent 15
Tiles, Paving,.....per cent 25
Timber, rough,.....per cent 20
Tin, in bars, pigs, or blocks, per cent 1
Foil,.....per cent 2½
In plates or sheets,.....per cent 2½
Taggers',.....per cent 2½
All manufactures of, or of which it is a component part, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 30
Tinctures of all kinds, not otherwise enumerated,.....per cent 25
Tinned or japanned common Saddlery,.....per cent 20
Tips of Horns,.....per cent 5
Tips and Runners for parasols, metal,.....per cent 30
Tippets, Fur,.....per cent 35
Tobacco, manufactured, other than snuff and cigars,.....per lb. 10
Unmanufactured,.....per cent 20
Toilette Glasses, and vials. (*See glass.*)
Tolu, Balsam of,.....per cent 25
Tongues, Reindeer & Neats', smoked,.....per cent 20
Tongues and Sounds, of foreign fisheries,.....per cent 20
Tonkay, or Tonqua Beans, per cent 20
Tools and implements of trade, of persons arriving in the U. States, in actual use,..... free
Tooth-Brushes, bone, or ivory, or shell,.....per cent 30
Tooth-Powder,.....per cent 20
Tooth-Picks, bone, ivory, shell, and quill,.....per cent 20
Metallic,.....per cent 30
Topaz, real,.....per cent 7
Imitation,.....per cent 7½
Tortoise Shell,.....per cent 5
Tow, Codilla, of Flax or Hemp, ton 20 00
Toys, metal, paper, wood,..per cent 30
Trace Chains, or parts thereof, pr. lb. 4
Trees,..... free
Trusses, with iron or metallic springs, of Indiarubber,.....per cent 30
If leather be the material of chief value,.....per cent 35
Tumblers. (*See glass.*)
Turmeric,..... free
Turquoises,.....per cent 7
Turpentine,.....per cent 25
Spirits of,.....gallon 10
Turtles,.....per cent 20
Twine, untarred,.....per lb. 6
Twist, cotton. (*See thread.*)
Twist, of silk, or composed of silk and mohair,.....per 16 ounces 2 00
Types, new or old,.....per cent 25
Type Metal and Stereotype Plates, per cent 25
Umbrellas, Parasols, & Sun Shades, silk,.....per cent 30
Cotton, or other materials, pr. cent 30
Furniture of, if metallic, per cent 30
do. if bone or ivory,.....per cent 20
Valencias, worsted and silk, per cent 30
Vanilla Beans,.....per cent 20
Varnishes of all kinds,.....per cent 20
Vases, Porcelain, for ornaments or flower stands,.....per cent 30
Vegetables, if principally us'd in dyeing, or composing dyes,..... free
Veils, silk, lace,.....per lb. 2 50
Cotton Lace,.....per cent 30
Vellum, or Parchment,.....per cent 25
Velvet—Cotton, Cords, Moleskins, Fustians, Buffalo cloths, goods manufact'd by napping or raising, cutting or shearing, not exceeding in value 35 cents per square yard, to be valued at 35 cents per square yard, and pay duty,.....per cent 30
Silk,.....per lb. 2 50
Velveteens. (*See velvet.*)
Venison Hams, preserved,....per lb. 3
Verdigris,.....per cent 20
Vermicelli,.....per cent 30
Vermillion,.....per cent 20
Vials, all uncut fancy and perfumery, not exceeding 4 ounces each in capacity,.....per gro. 2 50
Exceeding 4 oz., and not exceeding in capacity 16 oz. each,—per gross 3 00
Vials and Bottles, apothecaries', not exceeding the capacity of 6 oz. each,.....per gross 1 75
Exceeding 6, not over 16, pr. gro. 2 25
Vices,.....per cent 30
Vinegar,.....per gallon 8
Violins,.....per cent 30
Strings, Catgut,.....per cent 15
Visiting Cards,.....per lb. 12
Vitriol—Oil of Sulphuric Acid, p. lb. 1
Blue, Sulphate of Copper,..per lb. 4
Green, and Copperas,.....per lb. 2
Wafers,.....per cent 25
Waiters—metallic, wood, or japanned,.....pr. cent 30
Leather,.....per cent 35
Walking Canes, mounted,...per cent 30
Rough,..... free
Warming Pans,.....per cent 30
Watches, and parts thereof, per cent 7½
Glasses or Crystals,.....per gross 2 00

Water Colors,.....per cent 20
Wax Beads,.....per cent 25
Bees', bleached or not,....per cent 15
Wax, Sealing,.....per cent 25
Shoemakers,.....per cent 15
Tapers,.....per cent 30
Wearing Apparel, actually in use,... free
All other, except Gloves, Mitts, Socks, Stockings, wove Shirts and Drawers, and all similar manufactures, made on frames; Hats, Bonnets, Shoes & Bootees, imported in a state ready to be used as clothing, by men, women, or children, made up either by the tailor, manufacturer, or seamstress,.....per cent 50
All articles worn by men, women, or children, other than above specified or excepted, of whatever materials composed, made up wholly or in part by hand, p.ct. 40
Webbing—Cotton, or Indiarubber, " 30
Worsted or Woollen, made on frame,.....per cent 30
Wedgewood Ware,.....per cent 30
Weld,..... free
Whalebone, foreign fishery, per cent 12½
Whale Oil, " " per gallon 15
Wheat,.....per bushel 25
" Flour,.....112 pounds 70
Whetstones,.....per cent 20
Whips,.....per cent 35
Whiskey—1st and 2d proof,...gallon 60
3d,.....gallon 65
4th,.....gallon 70
5th,.....gallon 75
Above 5th,.....gallon 90
White Lead, dry or ground in oil, lb. 4
Whiting, or Paris White,.....per lb. 1
Wick, Cotton or Wick Yarn, as Cotton Yarn.
Wigs,.....per cent 25
Willow Sheets, for hats,....per cent 35
For making baskets or covering demijohns,.....per cent 20
Window Glass. (*See glass.*)
Windsor Shaving Soap, and all other perfumed,.....per cent 30
Wings & Epaulettes, of gold or silv'r, Plated,.....per cent free 30
Wines—Madeira, Sherry, San Lucas, & Canary, in casks or bott's, gal. 60
Champagne,.....gallon 40
Port, Burgundy, and Claret, in bottles,.....gallon 35
Port and Burgundy, in casks, gal. 15
Teneriffe, in casks or bottles, gal. 20
Claret, in casks,.....gallon 6
White Wines, not enumerated, of France, Austria, Prussia, Sardinia, Portugal and possessions,
In casks,.....gallon 7½
In bottles,.....gallon 20
On Red Wines, not enumerated, of France, Austria, Prussia, Sardinia, and Portugal and its possessions—
In casks,.....gallon 6
In bottles,.....gallon 20
On White & Red Wines of Spain, Germany, and the Mediterranean, not otherwise enumerat'd,
In casks,.....gallon 12½
In bottles,.....gallon 20
Sicily, Madeira, and Marsala, in casks or bottles,.....gallon 25
Other Wines of Sicily, in casks or bottles,.....gallon 15
All other not enumerated, & other than those of France, Austria, Prussia, Sardinia, and Portugal and its possessions—
In casks,.....gallon 25
In bottles,.....gallon 65
All imitations of wines, brandies, or spirits, shall pay the highest rate of duty applicable to the genuine article.
Nothing above contained, to interfere with subsisting treaties with foreign nations.
Bottles containing wine, to pay separate duty.
Wine Lees, Liquid,.....per cent 20
Crystallized, (crude Tartar,)..... free
Winter Bark, or Canella Alba, p. ct. 20
Wire—Brass or Copper,....per cent 25
Iron or Steel, not exceeding No. 14,.....per lb. 5
Over No. 14, not over No. 25, lb. 8
Over No. 25,.....per lb. 11
Silvered or Plated,.....per cent 30
Cap or Bonnet, covered with silk, per lb. 12
" Cover'd with Cotton Thread, or other material,...per lb. 8
Square, for umbrella stretchers, and in pieces not exceeding the proper length,.....per cent 12½
Woad or Pastel,.....per lb. 1
Wood of all kinds, in sticks, for Dyes, free
" " Ground, per cent 20
Wood—Fire,.....per cent 20
Quassia,..... free
Rose, Mahogany, Satin, and Cedar,.....per cent 15
All manufactures of, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 30
Wool—Angora, Goats', or Camels, Combed or Worsted, manufactures of, not otherwise specified, per cent 30
On the Skin, to be estimated as to weight and value the same as other wool, and to pay the same duty.
On coarse wool, unmanufactured,

the value whereof at the last port or place whence exported to the United States, shall be *seven* cents or under per pound, there shall be levied a duty of—per cent 5

Wool—On all other unmanufactured wool a duty of.....per cent 30

And in addition,.....per lb. 3

Provided, That when wool of different qualities of the same kind or sort is imported in the same bale, bag, or package, and the aggregate value of the contents of the bale, bag, or package shall be appraised by the appraisers at a rate exceeding seven cents per pound, it shall be charged with a duty in conformity to such appraisal.

Provided further, That when wool of different qualities, and different kinds or sorts is imported in the same bale, bag, or package, the contents of the bale, bag, or package shall be appraised at the value of the finest or most valuable kind or sort, and a duty charged thereon accordingly.

Provided, also, That if bales of different qualities are embraced in the same invoice, at the same price, the value of the whole shall be appraised according to the value of the bale of the best.

If any wool be imported having in it dirt, or any material or impurities other than those naturally belonging to the fleece, and thus be reduced in value to seven cts. per pound, or under, the appraisers shall appraise said wool at such price as in their opinion it would have cost had it not been so mixed with such dirt or impurities, and a duty shall be charged thereon in conformity to such appraisal.

Woollen, or Woollen and Worsted Drawers, Shirts, Mitts, Gloves, Caps, Bindings, Hosiery, and all such articles, made on frames, not otherwise specified, per cent 30

Yarn,.....per cent 30

Woollen and Worsted Yarn, per ct. 30

Bags,.....per cent 40

Bindings, made on frames, per ct. 30

Wool Hats, or Hat Bodies,.....each 18

Wool.—All manufactures of wool, or of which wool shall be a component part, except Carpetings, Flannels, Bockings, Baizes, Blankets, Worsted Stuff Goods, ready-made Clothing, Hosiery, Mitts, Gloves, and goods made on frames, pr. ct. 40

Worsted Stuffs, made of combed wool, and manufactures of Worsted and Silk, combined,...per cent 30

Yarn—Twist or Thread, Cotton, unbleached and uncolor'd, the true value of which, at the place whence imported, shall be less than 60 cents per pound, shall be valued at 60 cts. per pound, and pay a duty of.....per cent 25

Bleached or Colored, the true value of which, at the place whence imported, shall be less than 75 cents per pound, shall be valued at 75 cents per pound, and pay a duty of.....per cent 25

All other Cotton, Twist, Yarn, and Thread, on Spools or otherwise,.....per cent 30

Worsted and Wool,..... 30

Spun, for making Cordage, per lb. 6

Yellow Ochre, dry,.....per lb. 1

Ground in Oil,.....per lb. 1½

Zante Currants,.....per lb. 3

Zinc—in Sheets,.....per cent 10

Sulphate of; White Vitriol; p. ct. 20

Oxide of,.....per cent 20

All manufactures of, not otherwise specified,.....per cent 30

—

The following provision in the tariff law is annexed, by reason of its importance to the mercantile community. It is the 20th section of the law.

There shall be levied, collected, and paid on each and every non-enumerated article, which bears a similitude, either in material, quality, texture, or the use to which it may be applied, to any enumerated article chargeable with duty, the same rate of duty which is levied and charged on the enumerated article which it most resembles, in any of the particulars before mentioned;—and if any non-enumerated article equally resembles two or more enumerated articles, on which different rates of duty are chargeable, there shall be levied, collected, and paid, on such non-enumerated article, the same rate of duty as is chargeable on the article which it resembles paying the highest duty; and on all articles manufactured from two or more materials, the duty shall be assessed at the highest rates at which any of its component parts may be chargeable.

Rate at which Foreign Moneys and Currency are taken at the Customhouse.

	Cents.
Florin or guilder, of Bohemia,	48
do. Frankfort,	40
do. Nurembergh,	40
do. Elberfeldt,	38 and 36 1-2
do. Leipsig,	40
do. Netherlands,	40
do. Augsburgh, or Bavaria,	40 36-100
do. St. Gall, without consular certificate,	40 36-100
Rix dollar or thaler, of Prussia,	68 29-100
do. Bremen,	78 47-1000
do. Saxony,	69
do. Leipsig,	69 and 77
do. Denmark,	$1 00
Marc banco, of Hamburgh,	33 1-3
do. do. current,	28
Franc,	18 708-1000
Rupee, of Madras,	44 60-100
Pagoda,	$1 84
Sicca rupee, of Calcutta,	50
Leghorn, Tuscan, and Florence livre,	6 1-3 to the doll.
Louis d'or,	78 46-100

Tares allowed by law.

	Per cent
On sugar in casks, except loaf,	12
Boxes,	15
Bags or Mats,	5
Cheese in hampers or baskets,	10
Boxes,	20
Candles in boxes,	8
Chocolate in boxes,	10
Cotton in bales,	2
Zeroons,	6
Glauber Salts in casks,	8
Nails in casks,	8
Sugar Candy in boxes,	10
Soap in boxes,	10
Shot in casks,	3
Twine in casks,	12
Bales,	3

On other goods, according to invoice or actual weight. It is optional with the importer, at the time of making his entry, to have invoice tare allowed, the collector consenting thereto.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1841.

Statistical View of the Commerce of the United States, exhibiting the Value of Imports from, and Exports to, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 31st of September, 1841; derived from the report of the Secretary of the Treasury communicating the annual statement of the Commerce and Navigation of the United States, as required by Act of Congress.

COUNTRIES.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.	VALUE OF EXPORTS. *Domestic Produce.*	*Foreign Produce.*	*Total.*
Russia,	$2,817,448	$146,118	$879,611	$1,025,729
Prussia,	36,119	149,211	26,765	175,976
Sweden,	1,209,881	563,766	38,553	602,319
Swedish West Indies,	19,760	165,184	3,707	168,891

COUNTRIES.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.	VALUE OF EXPORTS. *Dom. Prod.*	*For. Prod.*	*Total.*
Denmark,	8,791	110,424	24,364	134,788
Danish West Indies,	1,075,530	769,908	82,587	852,495
Holland,	1,638,022	2,237,444	277,478	2,514,922
Dutch East Indies,	266,425	178,876	224,150	403,026
Dutch West Indies,	500,197	298,699	34,194	332,893
Dutch Guiana,	35,793	37,900	.....	37,900
Belgium,	374,833	1,673,726	150,156	1,823,882
Hanse Towns,	2,449,964	4,110,655	450,061	4,560,716
England,	45,730,007	44,184,357	3,371,220	47,555,577
Scotland,	850,887	1,920,506	15,318	1,935,824
Ireland,	81,921	60,872	.....	60,872
Gibraltar,	21,079	1,020,931	98,989	1,119,920
Malta,	1,461	27,869	21,070	48,939
Cape of Good Hope,	17,155	51,324	.....	51,324
British East Indies,	1,236,641	532,334	430,867	963,201
British West Indies,	855,122	3,191,683	40,311	3,231,994
British Honduras,	232,244	141,864	51,382	193,246
British Guiana,	18,228	381,332	1,269	382,601
British American Colonies,	1,968,187	6,292,290	364,273	6,656,563
Australia,	86,706	63,784	112,557	176,341
France,	23,933,812	18,410,367	3,356,388	21,766,755
French West Indies,	198,216	381,556	40,966	422,522
French Guiana,	55,416	43,701	340	44,041
Miquelon, and French fisheries,	.....	2,257	.....	2,257
Hayti,	1,809,684	1,093,634	61,923	1,155,557
Spain,	1,310,696	386,001	27,819	413,820
Teneriffe and the other Canaries,	144,654	12,290	3,499	15,789
Manilla, and Philippine Islands,	733,906	75,450	187,336	262,786
Cuba,	11,567,027	5,107,011	632,071	5,739,082
Other Spanish West Indies,	2,560,020	721,845	28,087	749,932
Portugal,	286,568	114,443	7,321	121,764
Madeira,	229,519	107,905	20,370	128,275
Fayal and the other Azores,	16,093	13,137	5,785	18,922
Cape de Verd Islands,	42,661	66,926	13,226	80,152
Italy,	1,151,236	731,411	180,907	912,318
Sicily,	588,057	474,470	11,592	486,062
Sardinia,	.....	47,000	.....	47,000
Trieste,	418,606	1,258,776	52,980	1,311,756
Turkey,	614,872	200,934	179,612	380,546
Morocco,	38,114	.....	.....	.....
Texas,	395,026	516,255	292,041	808,296
Mexico,	3,284,957	886,513	1,150,107	2,036,620
Venezuela,	2,012,004	532,419	230,083	762,502
New Grenada,	144,117	50,562	59,873	110,435
Central America,	186,911	78,616	71,297	149,913
Brazil,	6,302,653	2,941,991	575,282	3,517,273
Argentine Republic,	1,612,513	509,007	152,939	661,946
Cisplatine Republic,	345,234	140,031	16,193	156,224
Chili,	1,230,980	846,410	256,578	1,102,988
Peru,	524,376	.....	.....	.....
Patagonia,	27,269	.....	.....	.....
South America generally,	.....	78,981	.....	78,981
China,	3,985,388	715,322	485,494	1,200,816
Europe generally,	.....	41,938	.....	41,938
Asia generally,	167,318	252,209	506,819	759,028
Africa generally,	408,955	582,441	54,327	636,768
West Indies generally,	.....	255,222	9,013	264,235
South Seas,	38,440	394,634	99,931	494,565
Sandwich Islands,	47,630	.....	.....	.....
Uncertain places,	848	.....	.....	.....
TOTAL,	$127,946,177	$106,382,722	$15,469,081	$121,851,803

Statement of the Commerce of each State and Territory of the United States, commencing on the 1st day of October, 1840, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1841.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.			VALUE OF EXPORTS.						
				DOMESTIC PRODUCE.			FOREIGN PRODUCE.			
	American Vessels.	*Foreign Vessels.*	*Total.*	*American Vessels.*	*Foreign Vessels.*	*Total.*	*American Vessels.*	*Foreign Vessels.*	*Total.*	*Total of the Domestic and Foreign Produce.*
Maine,	$574,664	$126,297	$700,961	$1,029,905	$48,728	$1,078,633	$1,649	$11,283	$12,932	$1,091,565
New Hampshire,	61,585	12,116	73,701	7,476	2,785	10,261	42	45	87	10,348
Vermont,	246,739	.....	246,739	264,005	.....	264,005	13,982	.....	13,982	277,987
Massachusetts,	18,835,492	1,482,511	20,318,003	6,469,302	928,390	7,397,692	3,663,945	425,706	4,089,651	11,487,343
Rhode Island,	333,929	5,663	339,592	264,799	1,477	266,276	12,189	.....	12,189	278,465
Connecticut,	293,221	2,768	295,989	580,210	19,138	599,348	.....	.....	.....	599,348
New York,	66,688,750	9,024,676	75,713,426	19,660,881	4,618,727	24,279,608	6,668,917	2,191,308	8,860,225	33,139,833
New Jersey,	1,919	396	2,315	19,166	.....	19,166	.....	.....	.....	19,166
Pennsylvania,	9,840,354	506,344	10,346,698	3,990,504	414,359	4,404,863	723,782	23,856	747,638	5,152,501
Delaware,	1,188	2,088	3,276	38,585	.....	38,585	.....	.....	.....	38,685
Maryland,	5,348,866	752,447	6,101,313	3,536,202	1,252,958	4,789,160	111,089	46,917	158,006	4,947,166
District of Columbia,	53,863	23,400	77,263	616,044	148,791	764,835	2,819	1,677	4,496	769,331
Virginia,	351,917	25,320	377,237	5,155,618	473,292	5,628,910	1,328	48	1,376	5,630,286
North Carolina,	214,731	5,629	220,360	348,410	34,646	383,056	.....	.....	.....	383,056
South Carolina,	1,217,955	339,476	1,557,431	5,579,971	2,431,421	8,011,392	24,051	7,841	31,892	8,043,284
Georgia,	299,977	149,030	449,007	1,802,850	1,893,167	3,696,017	196	300	496	3,696,513
Alabama,	410,358	120,461	530,819	6,317,512	4,652,314	10,969,826	2,981	8,464	11,445	10,981,271
Mississippi,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana,	8,141,088	2,115,262	10,256,350	26,071,660	6,793,958	32,865,618	1,012,054	509,811	1,521,865	34,387,483
Ohio,	9,563	1,755	11,318	708,367	84,747	793,114	.....	.....	.....	793,114
Kentucky,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,	7,523	.....	7,523	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,	137,608	192	137,800	88,529	.....	88,529	.....	.....	.....	88,529
Missouri,	33,875	.....	33,875	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida,	116,712	28,469	145,181	19,393	14,435	33,828	225	2,576	2,801	36,629
TOTAL	113,221,877	14,724,300	127,946,177	82,569,389	23,813,333	106,382,722	12,239,249	3,229,832	15,469,081	121,851,803

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1841.

Summary Statement of the Value of the Exports of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of the United States, during the year commencing on the 1st day of October, 1840, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1841.

THE SEA.			
Fisheries—Dried Fish, or Cod Fisheries,		$602,810	
Pickled Fish, or River Fisheries, (Herring, Shad, Salmon, and Mackerel,)		148,973	
Whale and other Fish Oil,		1,260,660	
Spermaceti Oil,		343,300	
Whalebone,		259,148	
Spermaceti Candles,		231,960	
			$2,846,851
THE FOREST.			
Skins and Furs,		993,262	
Ginseng,		437,245	
Product of Wood—			
Staves, Shingles, Boards, Hewn Timber,	$2,549,812		
Other Lumber,	266,175		
Masts and Spars,	58,991		
Oak Bark and other Dye,	153,519		
All Manufactures of Wood,	548,308		
Naval Stores, Tar, Pitch, Rosin, and Turpentine,	684,514		
Ashes, Pot and Pearl,	573,026		
		4,834,345	
			6,264,852
AGRICULTURE.			
Product of Animals—			
Beef, Tallow, Hides, Horned Cattle,	904,918		
Butter and Cheese,	504,815		
Pork (Pickled) Bacon, Lard, Live Hogs,	2,621,537		
Horses and Mules,	293,143		
Sheep,	35,767		
		4,360,180	
Vegetable Food—			
Wheat,	822,881		
Flour,	7,759,646		
Indian Corn,	312,954		
Indian Meal,	682,457		
Rye Meal,	138,505		
Rye, Oats, and other small grain and pulse,	159,893		
Biscuit, or Shipbread,	378,041		
Potatoes,	64,402		
Apples,	48,396		
Rice,	2,010,107		
		12,377,282	
			16,737,462
Tobacco,			12,576,703
Cotton,			54,330,341
All other Agricultural Products—			
Flaxseed,		50,781	
Hops,		28,823	
Brown Sugar,		23,837	
			103,441
MANUFACTURES.			
Soap, and Tallow Candles,		494,577	
Leather, Boots and Shoes,		193,583	
Household Furniture,		310,105	
Coaches and other Carriages,		60,456	
Hats,		100,725	
Saddlery,		22,456	
Wax,		74,120	
Beer, Porter, and Cider,		59,133	

Spirits from Grain,		$97,150	
Snuff and Tobacco,		873,877	
Lead,		96,748	
Linseed Oil, and Spirits of Turpentine,		52,162	
Cordage,		31,582	
Iron—Pig, Bar, and Nails,		138,537	
Castings,		99,904	
All manufactures of,		806,823	
Spirits from Molasses,		371,294	
Sugar, Refined,		1,348,974	
Chocolate,		2,606	
Gunpowder,		146,934	
Copper and Brass,		72,932	
Medicinal Drugs,		136,469	
			$5,591,147
Cotton Piece Goods—Printed and Colored,	$450,503		
White,	2,324,839		
Twist, Yarn, and Thread,	43,503		
All manufactures of,	303,701		
		3,122,546	
Flax and Hemp—Cloth and Thread,		2,764	
Bags, and all manufactures of,		10,636	
Wearing Apparel,		77,907	
Combs and Buttons,		47,548	
Brushes,		2,590	
Billiard Tables and Apparatus,		996	
Umbrellas and Parasols,		7,699	
Leather and Morocco Skins, not sold per pound,		38,689	
Printing Presses and Type,		561	
Fire Engines and Apparatus,		22,439	
Musical Instruments,		16,119	
Books and Maps,		40,620	
Paper and Stationery,		83,483	
Paints and Varnish,		40,578	
Vinegar,		12,957	
Earthen and Stoneware,		6,737	
Manufactures of Glass,		43,095	
Tin,		3,751	
Pewter and Lead,		20,546	
Marble and Stone,		33,546	
Gold and Silver, and Gold Leaf,		2,452	
Gold and Silver Coin,		2,746,486	
Artificial Flowers and Jewelry,		10,013	
Molasses,		7,999	
Trunks,		1,916	
Bricks and Lime,		14,064	
Domestic Salt,		62,765	
			6,481,502
Articles not enumerated—			
Manufactured,		626,857	
Other Articles,		823,566	
			1,450,423
			$106,382,722

TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND HER COLONIES.

In a late debate in the British parliament on the subject of colonial duties, Lord Stanley said—"He had before him a return of the amount of trade between our different colonial possessions and Great Britain; and he called upon the house to look not merely to its value in figures, but to consider how large a proportion of it was carried on directly with this country. In 1837, the total amount of imports into our British North American possessions was £3,844,000, and in 1838, £3,648,000, or, upon the average of two

years, £3,700,000; of which only £700,900 in each of these two years was from foreign countries, the remainder being a trade exclusively in our own hands, and the produce of British manufactures.

"The total amount of the trade of our British colonial possessions with Great Britain, representing the imports of British North America, the West Indies, and Australia, was no less in 1837 than £10,261,000, and in 1838, £10,580,000; of which only about £2,000,000 did not come directly from Great Britain, the produce of British manufacture. Our returns from the same colonies amounted in 1837 to £11,056,000, and in 1838 to £12,054,000; and these returns were considerably increasing. Compared with this, what was any other trade we had with any other country on the face of the globe? In British North America, with a population not exceeding 1,340,000 souls, there had been a consumption of our manufactures at the rate of 39*s.* 9*d.* per head; while in the United States—whose trade he would by no means depreciate, but rather increase and extend—with 17,000,000 of people, the consumption of British manufactures did not exceed, on an average, £7,235,000, or at the rate of 8*s.* 5*d.* per head. And although our imports from the United States had gone on increasing, our exports had decreased. In 1839 we took of their manufactures $60,000,000, and they received from us $65,000,000; in 1840 our import trade into the United States fell, from whatever cause, from $65,000,000 to $33,000,000."

WINE TRADE OF OPORTO.

From recent accounts published in the London Times, it appears that the wine trade is in a very low condition, with increasing stocks, and no prospect of riddance. Let the following statement speak for itself:—

The Douro vintage of 1841 was as follows—	*Pipes.*
First quality,	58,063
Second quality,	10,190
Third quality,	7,165
Inferior quality,	2,456
	77,894
The stocks remaining in Oporto, Villa Nova, and the vicinity, from former years were	153,287
The old wines in the north of Portugal, besides,	20,907
In the London Docks,	23,000
TOTAL,	275,000

Here is the astounding fact that on the 31st of December, 1841, there was in Oporto, in the wine country north of Portugal, and in London, (deducting last year's sale,) a quarter of a million pipes of port wine, for which no probable vent was afforded, the annual production (about 80,000 pipes) being so far beyond the annual export. A quarter of a million of pipes! The pipe contains about twenty-five cubic feet of fluid. The quantity of port wine, therefore, in existence (independently of private cellars,) is about 6,250,000 cubic feet, or enough to float all the navies of Europe! Now, the lowest calculation at which the interest upon capital thus locked up, leakage, and charge for storage can be taken, is ten per cent. Many wine houses at Oporto have stocks of from 1000 to 2000 pipes, upon which they are, therefore, sustaining an annual loss of from £2,000 to £5,000. The price of port wines has come down immensely. Wine that sold some time since for 130 milreis (say £25) the pipe, may now be bought for 60 milreis, (from £13 to £14.) But this avails but little for the reduction of the stocks. The great bulk of the exports go to England; yet last year, the export to England did not exceed 21,000 pipes, and in few years do they exceed 30,000. Compare this with the annual production of 80,000 pipes.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The American Almanac and Repository of Useful Information for the year* 1843. Boston: David H. Williams. 12mo. pp. 334.

The fourteenth annual issue of this standard work is before us, and as usual, contains a great variety of useful information. For the last twelve years it has been conducted by Mr. Joseph E. Worcester, of Cambridge, and its reputation as a valuable and accurate summary of general knowledge, is attributed chiefly to his exertions. The statement of the publisher will be admitted by all who are acquainted with its character, that "it has merited the large share of public favor which it has received, both as a manual of reference, and a record of facts, carefully collected and arranged, of much immediate interest, and of permanent value as a contribution to statistical science, and the general policy of the country." The present volume is the fourth of which the present editor has had the charge, who seems to have preserved, with fidelity, all its characteristic features. The astronomical department is under the charge of Professor Pierce, who managed the same department in the volume for 1842, and whose name affords sufficient assurance that it will be found as full and as accurate as in former years.

2.—*The United States' Almanac;* or Complete Ephemeris, for the year 1843; wherein the Sun's rising, setting, &c., are given for six different parallels of Latitude, embracing the whole extent of the Union; also a collection of such Tables as are of most frequent use among Engineers, for the determination of Latitude, Time, etc.; a complete census of the United States, from the official report just presented to congress, including the population of every Town, County, Territory, and State, arranged in alphabetical order; the principal officers of the government, and the various departments, with their compensations; a view of all the State Debts, and the various purposes for which they were contracted; and numerous Statistics, relative to Commerce, Manufactures, Agriculture, &c. By JOHN DOWNES, late of the North Eastern Boundary Survey. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler.

The full titlepage quoted, by no means furnishes a complete index to the great variety and vast amount of information embraced in this volume of more than three hundred pages of closely printed matter. The portions of the work devoted to the engineer and practical astronomer will be found particularly valuable, and from the established reputation of the author, we presume very accurate. Although the plan of this new candidate for public favor is somewhat similar to that of the "American Almanac," so large a portion of the matters introduced, are so entirely different, that it would seem almost indispensable to those who value works of record and reference to possess both. The fact is, that half a dozen volumes of the kind might be published without embracing the one half that would be interesting and useful.

3.—*The Laws of the different States and Territories of the United States on Imprisonment for Debt.* By ASA KINNE. New York: J. S. Voorhies. 1842.

We heartily thank Mr. Kinne for placing before us the laws of all the states and territories, as they now exist, touching that relic of barbarism—imprisonment for debt, or poverty. It clearly shows, that in some form or other, the poor debtor is in every state, save one, in the power of the creditor. The Christian minister, who does not raise his voice against an evil so hostile to the spirit of the gospel he preaches, fails, in our opinion, to fulfil the entire objects of his mission to his fellow-man; and the Christian layman, who avails himself of the privilege guarantied to him by the unhallowed law, by incarcerating in the walls of the prison, or otherwise depriving him of his heaven-derived birthright—*liberty*—has not learned the spirit of the Christian doctrine aright—and is deficient in the common sympathies of humanity. The pen of the republican patriot, the philanthropist, and the Christian, should be wielded in holy crusade against this glaring infringement of human rights.

4.—*Ellen Leslie, or the Reward of Self-Control.* New York: Dayton & Newman.

This is the fifth of a series of "Tales for the Young, or Lessons for the Heart, by Aunt Kitty." The moral influence of the stories is unexceptionable, and the writer seems to understand, and sympathize with, the workings of the young mind.

5.—*The Gift:* 1843. A Christmas and New Year's Present. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The mechanical execution of this work is excellent; and the engravings, all original, generally rise far above mediocrity. We have never seen any thing sweeter or more exquisite than the vignette face on the titlepage. It is a perfect gem. The "lace cap" is a neat specimen of the art; equal, if not superior, to the very best of the English annuals. The "Gift" is in every respect an American work. The contributions are by American authors,—and the illustrations (eight in number) by American artists. There are twenty-three articles, of various but general excellence. Many of these are of a higher order of merit than usually characterize our annuals. There is but one or two pieces, that might, perhaps, have been omitted, or their place supplied with articles of greater value or interest. But where all are so good, it would perhaps be deemed invidious to particularize. It is on the whole equal, if not superior, to any that have preceded it; and we have no hesitation in pronouncing it the Gift of the season.

6.—*The Christian Souvenir;* an Offering for Christmas and the New Year. Edited by Isaac F. Shepard. Boston: David H. Williams.

This souvenir "comes before the public as a stranger, with the warm hope that they who harbor it may thereby receive a spirit of light, of beauty, and of love," and we bid it a hearty welcome, confident that it will find many fervent hearts and cultivated intellects to appreciate its solid worth. The editor has succeeded in a great measure in his endeavor "to improve on all who have gone before him, by combining what shall be attractive, sparkling and chaste, in polite literature, with a high degree of utility and religious value." It contains forty-two original pieces, in prose and verse, mostly from well-known authors, and is illustrated by six engravings, viz:—Mar Johannan, painted by C. Hubbard, engraved by J. G. Kellogg. Illustrated titlepage, designed by H. Billings, and engraved by J. Andrews. The Noonday Rest, and the Sisters of Bethany, by O. Pelton. Perils of the Deep, painted by F. Birch, engraved by Rawdon, Wright, Hatch, & Smellie. Holy Hours, painted by N. Southworth, and engraved by G. F. Storm. The subjects of the illustrations are good, and the literary department as a whole is not surpassed by any of the annuals, English or American. Varied as are the pieces, they possess a high degree of interest, and are chosen with excellent taste and a nice discrimination. The worthy publisher has liberally contributed to the external finish and beauty of the work; and the typography is in the best style of the Boston press.

7.—*The Rose of Sharon:* A Religious Souvenir, for 1843. Edited by Miss Sarah C. Edgerton. Boston: A. Tompkins.

The present is, we believe, the fourth annual blossoming of this "Rose of Sharon," and in our judgment, it greatly exceeds in merit, as it certainly does in its mechanical appearance, any of its predecessors. The letter-press is beautiful, but we cannot in justice to even our humble ideal of the beautiful and correct in the art, say much in favor of the illustrations. The subjects of the engravings are, however, well chosen, and the literary department atones in a measure for the imperfect execution. "The Dweller Apart" has an interest aside from its intrinsic excellence, as the latest work of the fair writer's pen, now a "dweller" in the world of spirits. "The Unfulfilled Mission of Christianity," by Horace Greeley, breathes the pure spirit of the gospel of peace and good-will to men." "The Actual," by Henry Bacon, is full of truth and beauty, and yearning aspirations after a higher and better life in the living present,—the *actual* of the intellectual and the spiritual man.

8.—*Christ our Law.* By Mrs. Caroline Fry, author of "The Listener," "Christ our Example," "The Jubilee of the Lord," &c. New York: Robert Carter. 1842.

This treatise is based on the popular doctrine of natural depravity, the vicarious atonement, the infinite evil of sin, and the supreme deity of Christ. It is the declared desire of the author "to simplify and comprehend the great first principles of the law of God in the gospel of Jesus Christ; to unravel the tangled thread in which the awakened spirit finds itself involved in its researches after truth; and to draw out, from the beginning to the end, the curiously wrought, but never broken tissue." She admits, however, the fallibility of human judgments, and maintains that our strongest statements should be attempered with persuasion, and borne out with argument, and submitted to "proof, and held with toleration." The work will find favor with the advocates of "moderate Calvinism."

9.—*The Adventures of Captain John Smith, the Founder of the Colony of Virginia.* By the author of "Uncle Philip's Conversations." 10.—*The Adventures of Henry Hudson.* By the same author. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

These two volumes are the first of a series of books to appear at convenient intervals, under the title of "A Library for my Young Countrymen." The design of which is to present books of a higher value than is usually afforded in the tales and stories that flood the country. It is to embrace volumes of biography, history, travels, &c., and as it is designed especially for American youth, the subjects selected will be mainly American; although profitable and interesting lessons are not to be excluded from the series, from whatever quarter they may be derived. As in the volumes of biography before us, the best practical examples will be given to "our young countrymen," to call them up to a pure and lofty energy. The writer considers that all education, to be good, must be based upon Christian principle; that the heart must be cultivated, as well as the understanding; and therefore, whatever is placed in this series, will be found on the side of Christianity. The lives of Hudson and Smith are rich in incidents "stranger than fiction," and far more instructive. The style of "Uncle Philip" is peculiarly adapted to the taste and capacity of the young, without being puerile, or less attractive to the more cultivated intellect of the advanced reader.

11.—*The Odd Fellows' Offering:* 1843. Edited by PASCHAL DONALDSON. New York: Samuel A. House & Co.

A homely exterior sometimes covers a warm and generous heart, and why may not an odd name, like the apples of gold in pictures of silver, modestly conceal beneath its honest folds much of the good and the true? It certainly does, in our estimate, in the present instance, for if there is "any praise, any virtue," in friendship, love, and truth, and in the "diffusion of the principles of benevolence and charity," then is the institution which bears the unique title given to this serial, worthy of all acceptation. But it is the "Offering" that claims our notice at this time, and not the society whose literature it is designed to represent. The typography of the "Offering" is certainly beautiful, and the literary department respectable; the articles, of varied interest, are deeply imbued with the true moral sentiment; and the engravings are pretty good; they do not, however, come up to even our imperfect ideal of the art. On the whole, however, we commend the work to the "fraternity," and to those who are curious to learn the principles and the history of the Order; the "secrets" of course, excepted, which, we will venture to say, "do not compromit those high and exalted duties we owe to our God, our country, and ourselves."

12.—*Hydriatics; or Manual of the Water Cure*, especially as practised by Vincent Pressnitz, in Græfenberg. Compiled and translated from the writings of Charles Munde, Dr. Gertel, Dr. Bernhard Herschel, and other eye-witnesses and practitioners. By FRANCIS GRAETER. 12mo. pp. 198. New York: William Radde. 1842.

The Allopathic, and the Homœopathic systems, acknowledge the existence of a healing power in the organism which they endeavor to succour; but the theory of the *water cure* addresses itself to this power exclusively, and with the rejection of every specific means, finds the universal auxiliary for exciting and strengthening the vital power in cold water alone, variously applied and assisted by sudations. The present essay is designed to recommend cold water, if not as a universal nostrum, yet as the most universally useful, and, in a great many cases, at least, exclusive means for the prevention and radical cure of diseases, and invigoration of body and mind. The effects of the method, as related in this volume, as connected with the rise and progress of this institution in Græfenberg, are truly astonishing, and at least, entitle the *water cure* to an unprejudiced consideration.

13—*Rienzi, the Last of the Tribunes.* No. 8 of Harpers' Library of Select Novels. 25 cents per number.

The unfitness of a degenerate and corrupt people for the enjoyment of freedom is strikingly exemplified in the historical events which form the basis of this admirable romance, and it teaches a great political lesson, which cannot be too deeply pondered. Bulwer has thrown around it all the magic of his great genius, to make it the more impressive. Who would recognise the fickle and miserable populace whom Rienzi vainly undertook to redeem from bondage, as the descendants of the stern and virtuous old Romans of the republic? This work is profoundly instructive.

14.—*The Complete Poetical Works of Robert Burns*: with Explanatory and Glossarial Notes, and a Life of the author. By JAMES CURRIE, M. D. The first complete American edition. 18mo. pp. 573. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

In reprinting the poetical works of one so distinguished, and so universally admired as Burns, the publishers deemed it their duty to collate the various editions of his works, and to collect together the various poems which are the admitted productions of the poet, so as to render the present edition more complete than any that has preceded it. This edition, the most beautiful and perfect that has yet been published in this country, was edited by one of the most gifted living authors of Scotland; and to make the dialect and allusions fully acceptable to the American reader, glossarial definitions, and notes illustrative of the manners and customs which are described, are added—not heaped together at the end, to fatigue the patience of the reader, but subjoined to their respective pages, where they may be seen at a glance, in connection with the text.

15.—*Uncas and Miantonomoh; an Historical Discourse.* By WILLIAM L. STONE, Author of the "Life of Brant," "Life and Times of Red Jacket," &c. 18mo. pp. 209. New York: Dayton & Newman. 1842.

This discourse was delivered by the author on the fourth of July, 1842, on the occasion of the erection of a monument to the memory of Uncas, "the white man's friend, and first chief of the Mohegans." Like every thing from the pen of Mr. Stone, touching the history, character, habits, and manners of the aborigines of America, it evinces the same careful and untiring research, the same faithful appreciation of Indian character, and the same ardent desire to do ample justice to a race of men rapidly receding before the influence of Anglo-Saxon power,—a race that must ere long live only in the records of the biographer and historian.

16.—*The Book of Religions;* comprising the views, creeds, sentiments, or opinions of all the principal religious sects in the world, particularly of all Christian denominations in Europe and America; to which are added church and missionary statistics, together with biographical sketches. By JOHN HAYWARD, author of the New England Gazetteer. 12mo. pp. 432. New York: Dayton & Newman.

The design of Mr. Hayward in the preparation of this work, is to exhibit to his readers, with impartiality and perspicuity, as briefly as their nature will permit, the views, creeds, sentiments, or opinions of the various religious sects or denominations in the world; but more especially to give the rise, progress, and peculiarities of the principal schemes or systems of religion which exist in the United States at the present day. To accomplish this design, the editor obtained from those he deemed the most intelligent and candid among the living defenders of each denomination, full and explicit statements of their religious sentiments, such as they believe and teach. The work will serve as a manual for those who are desirous of acquiring, with as little trouble as possible, a correct knowledge of the tenets of religious faiths, presented for the consideration of mankind, and enable them almost at a glance to compare one creed or system with another, and each with the scriptures, and the dictates of reason, or the "light which lighteth every man that cometh into the world," and thus to "judge for themselves what is right."

17.—*Ormusd's Triumph; or the Fall of Ahriman.* A Drama. 12 mo. pp. 100. New York: Alexander V. Blake. 1842.

The machinery of this poem is taken principally from the ancient religion of the Persians, the theology of Zoroaster, the leading doctrine of which was a belief in the existence of two beings, Ormusd and Ahriman, the spirit of goodness and the spirit of evil. These spirits are the principal dramatis personæ of the drama. In addition, the principles of truth, liberty, love, temperance, industry, &c. are introduced as the followers of Ormusd; and superstition, intemperance, and despotism, as followers of Ahriman. The subject of the poem, divested of allegory, is the progress and improvement of the human mind; "its object being to give a clearer and more definite idea of the nature of that improvement," says the author, "than is perhaps generally professed; to show of what it rightly consists, its true elements, and the condition to which it may, and probably will elevate our race." The work is in keeping with the spirit of the age, and is indicative of the increase of those who yearn after a more perfect development of the true and the perfect in humanity.

18.—*History of the United States, or Republic of America.* By EMMA WILLARD. 8vo. pp. 448. Philadelphia: A. S. Barnes & Co.

It is evidently the design of the author of this history of our country, by clear arrangement, and devices addressed to the eye, to aid the faculties of the student to seize and hold fast the frame-work of an important subject, that future facts may naturally find and keep their own place in the mind, and the whole subject rest there in philosophical order. The plan of this history is chronologically exhibited in the front of the titlepage. Maps are included between the periods of the work, coinciding in time with the branches of the subject, and sketches on the maps picture the events there expressed in words. A comprehensive chronology of the most important events in the history of America, from its discovery to the death of President Harrison, is given in the first part of the volume, and the history is brought down to the possession, by the constitution, of the presidency by Mr. Tyler. Appended to the history is the constitution of the United States, and a vast number of questions to each chapter.

19.—*Julia of Baiæ;* or the Days of Nero. A Story of the Martyrs. By the author of the "Merchant's Daughter," "Virginia," "Christmas Bells," etc. New York: Saxton & Miles.

This tale is connected with some of those tragical events which have made the reign of Nero a proverb among men, and the author appears to have given a faithful and condensed view of the history and spirit of the time, avoiding those minute details which the pen of one of the most profound historians of antiquity has preserved. Not, however, omitting altogether the disgusting atrocities of the age, he has touched them as lightly as possible, choosing rather to sacrifice somewhat of the interest which might otherwise have been thrown around the narrative, than sully his page with impurity. The author displays no ordinary power in the development of the narrative, which possesses a deep interest, and the style is at once simple, chaste, and graceful.

20.—*Principalities and Powers in Heavenly Places.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH, with an introduction by Rev. Edward Beckersteith. 12mo. pp. 298. New York: John S. Taylor & Co. 1842.

The author of this volume delights to penetrate the "dark valley and shadow" that hides from human vision the spirit-land. Reverence, marvellousness, and faith in the unseen shadowings of eternity, with a mixture of enthusiasm and bigotry, make up the strong points in her character, as indicated in the productions of her prolific and untiring pen. Differing as we do with her in sentiment, still we find in her writings the materials of thought and many sparkling coruscations of a fervid and truly poetical imagination. The volume before us is divided into two parts. The first treats of "evil spirits," in which she maintains their existence and describes their character, their power, and their employment—their daring, cunning, cruelty, activity, knowledge; and closes with the "doom of Satan and his angels." The second part is devoted to an account of the good spirits, "or holy angels," which she describes with great minuteness, without however claiming to have conversed with them, after the manner of Swedenbourg.

21.—*Dissertations on the Prophecies relative to the Second Coming of Jesus Christ.* By GEORGE DUFFIELD, pastor of the first Presbyterian Church at Detroit. 12mo. pp. 434. New York: Dayton & Newman. 1842.

The dissertations embraced in this volume are the substance of part of a series of lectures delivered in the winter of 1841-2, to the people of his charge, and are "given to the public in compliance with the desire expressed by many to have them in some referable and permanent form." The writer discards the reasoning and speculations of the statesmen and politicians of the day, who think that they descry in the march of improvement, the increase of light, and the very posture of nations, the pledges that earth shall be redeemed, and liberty, virtue, science, bless the human race,—and "looks to the more sure word of prophecy as the best and safest guide for our researches into the future."

22.—*Gems from the American Poets.* New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

This beautiful little volume contains about one hundred and fifty from among the best poems of our most distinguished poets. The selection is made with admirable taste and judgment, and the volume forms one of the series of "Appleton's Miniature Library," which, altogether, embraces the very gems of English literature.

23.—*Memoir of Mrs. Mary Lundie Duncan;* being recollections of a daughter. By her mother. 12mo. pp. 268. New York: Robert Carter. 1842.

Those who delight to mark the early development of genius, and of Christian purity and piety, will find in this little volume rich and abundant materials of thought, connected with the intellectual and spiritual culture of one whose earthly career was brief, but whose mind advanced with peculiar energy towards the fulfilment of its high mission to the goal of its immortal inheritance in the "spirit-land." The memoir exhibits a rare combination of the excellencies of a woman, whose piety, natural dispositions, intellectual attainments, accomplishments, and personal attractions, would, if held separately, have distinguished their possessor in society, but when united in one individual, like the colors in the heavenly bow, each shed a lustre on the other.

24.—*First Impressions; or Hints to those who would make home happy.* By Mrs. Ellis, author of "Women of England," "Daughters of England," etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Another of the admirable series of "Tales for the People and their Children," which we cannot too strongly commend to their attention. In the machinery of agreeable narrative, every-day practical "hints" and moral truths are conveyed, that if received into honest hearts, will indeed make "home happy."

LOUISVILLE MERCANTILE LIBRARY.

A member of the College of Teachers says—"During a visit of a few days to the city of Louisville, among other objects of interest, I have spent a few very agreeable hours in looking over the well-stored shelves of the Mercantile Library. I was prepared to find it a good one, but my expectations were much exceeded. Though but half a year old, it contains the best collection of English books I have ever met with. The valuable donations of the citizens, who have shown a noble liberality in giving of their best and most cherished volumes, and the well-chosen purchases of the president, Mr. Bucklin, render it one of the most choice and excellent collections in the United States, and its 3,000 volumes far exceed in value many of 10,000 or 15,000. As but a part of the subscription has been expended, the library will receive further large augmentations, and be a just subject of pride and pleasure to those who have so liberally promoted its formation. To the young men of the city it is literally invaluable; for a small sum annually they enjoy advantages for study equal to the wealthiest, and have an access to the stores of learning and genius which would have filled the heart of a Franklin with ecstasy. The taste and judgment which have characterized the previous purchases are a guaranty for the future; and it cannot but gratify every friend of human improvement to see books and lectures, here and elsewhere, substituted for the demoralizing excitement of the theatre and the gaming-table."

Francis's Manifold Writers.—The manifold writers of Mr. Lewis Francis, advertised in the Merchants' Magazine Advertiser, is an excellent article. We have used it, and find it to be a great saving of time and expense, and would therefore recommend it to business men as a very useful invention. A letter, duplicate, and even a triplicate, may be made with as much ease as a single letter, without even the necessity of using an inkstand or a pen. The writing is perfectly indelible. Time will not diminish its brightness. It must prove highly valuable to merchants who desire to preserve *fac-simile* copies of their correspondence without the labor or expense of copying.

To Correspondents.—We have received several answers to the problems in accountantship, which appeared in the September number of the Merchants' Magazine. They will be attended to in our next. An "Analysis of Bookkeeping, as a Branch of General Education," by Mr. Thomas Jones, accountant, will also be published in the December number.

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

DECEMBER, 1842.

THE PROPERTY OF THE UNIVERSITY

ART. I.—THE COMMERCIAL DECLINE OF SPAIN.

INTRODUCTION—TERRITORIAL LOSSES OF SPAIN—SPECIAL RESOURCES OF SPAIN—MANUFACTURING RESOURCES—COMMERCIAL AND TRADING INTERESTS OF SPAIN—EXPORTS AND IMPORTS—TARIFF—RESULTS OF THE SPANISH TARIFF ON THE MANUFACTURES AND TRADE OF THE KINGDOM, ETC.

SPAIN is now held together more by the compression of surrounding interests, than by the attraction of cohesion. Weak and friendless, imbued with the infirmities of old age without its wisdom, with the misery of misfortune without its experience, she stands at the gate of the graveyard of nations, without the power, or perhaps the wish to avert the doom that awaits her. Buried she soon must be; the principle of vitality which she possesses is not strong enough to hold her in her orbit for another cycle: she has fallen into that last lethargy from which but few awake; and when once stretched out in full in that venerable mausoleum which history will place over her remains, the emblems of her sovereignty, the successive indices of her rise, her decline, her fall, will present a lesson over which it will be well for her successors to ponder. There were no indigenous seeds of disease which, in their appointed time, eat away her strength and destroyed her vitality. With a climate most lovely and fruitful, with a country most beautiful and diversified, with riches inexhaustible, with colonies which covered in their nets once a whole hemisphere, she was endowed, when Charles V. resigned the imperial crown, with every blessing that could ensure her prosperity and prolong her existence. Her blessings she has made unto herself curses. Her population has weltered away in the halo of the most benignant atmosphere in the old world; her soldiers have lost their courage, with their ambition; her colonies have dropped off, not because as ripe fruit they no longer needed the parent sap, but because the bough to which they clung refused them further nourishment; her territory has been pared away by the surrounding powers, till little is left but the inferior core; and from the first among the leading nations of Europe, she has become the last. Queen Maria Isabella II. was left in September, 1833, in the third year of her age, the infant monarch of a country whose scattered elements were losing,

by the disasters of civil war, the little that remains from the ruin of foreign invasion. We have said, that the fall of Spain is to be attributed not to inherent debility, or internal disease. To what, in fact, it is to be attributed, it is our object in the succeeding pages to exhibit.

I.—THE TERRITORIAL LOSSES OF SPAIN.

When Charles V., the grandson of the Emperor Maximilian I., and the heir through him of the vast dominions of the house of Hapsburg, entered in childhood upon the inheritance which descended from his ancestors on the mother's side, his first great duty was to consolidate from the disjointed materials which were scattered around him,—from Castile, which fell into his hands through his grandmother Isabella, and from Arragon and Navarre, the possessions of his grandfather Ferdinand,—the united kingdom of Spain. Under his domains were included, in part through marriage, in part through conquest, the Netherlands, Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, Malta, and the Balearic islands, containing a surface of 220,740 square miles. During a reign of forty years, Charles V. had so used and nurtured the great resources committed to his charge, that at the time of his resignation, the kingdom of Spain, with its dependencies, had arisen to the first rank among European nations. By the conquest of the dukedom of Milan, and through the acquisition of those immense tracts of country which were then included within Mexico, Peru, and Chili, the Spanish territory in Europe was swollen to 222,000, in America to 3,560,000 square miles; and with an army the best disciplined in the world, with a navy the most extensive, the Spanish emperor became possessed of a degree of political power, which, since Charlemagne, had been unequalled.

Never was there a monarch more fitted than Philip II., both on account of his sleepless energy, his crafty politics, his personal power, for the inferior management of so great a charge. For forty-two years he continued on the throne in full possession of his remarkable faculties; he was supported by the most distinguished statesmen and generals of his age; he was enriched by the most inexhaustible mines of wealth; his domains, by the extinction of the male branch of the royal family of Portugal, were swollen by the accession of that powerful country with its American dependencies: and yet, when he left the throne, he left it with its internal strength dissipated. He had mistaken the spirit of the age; he had broken where he had meant to bend; by the daring irritation of his tyranny he had stimulated one portion of his people to rebellion—he had degraded the other into imbecility; and when he died, the Netherlands were independent, and Spain exhausted.

From the date of the death of Philip II., Spain has suffered irreparable losses, which have not only diminished her population and shrunk her territory, but have destroyed her internal prosperity and her external trade. From Philip III. the acknowledgment of the independence of the Netherlands was finally wrung; and a treaty, which never from the iron hand of Philip II. could have been drawn, was executed, by which Spain lost 8,560 square miles. His successor, Philip IV. lost, in 1640, the kingdom of Portugal, (34,400 square miles,) with its colonial possessions, (3,660,000 square miles,) together with the island of Jamaica, (5,380 square miles;) in 1655, and in 1659 by the Pyrenean peace, the countries of Roussillon and Artois, a part of Charolais, and a number of forts in Flanders, Nemours, and Hennegan. Under Charles II., the last and

most feeble of the Spanish line of the house of Hapsburg, (1665—1700,) Spain, through the entire inefficiency of her plans, and the utter weakness of her exertions, sunk without an effort into the second rank of European powers. Through the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, (1668,) she lost the remainder of her Netherland reservations, together with half of Saint Domingo, and by the peace of Nymwegen, the whole of Franche Comté.

Through the twelve years' war of the Spanish succession, between the houses of Bourbon and Hapsburg, a fresh dismemberment took place. The house of Hapsburg, after being recompensed with the Spanish territories north of the Pyrenees, and seven years later with the island of Sardinia, was forced to cede to the house of Savoy the kingdom of Sicily; by which process Spain lost a territory amounting to 67,100 square miles. Under the Bourbon Anjou ascendancy, which commenced with the reign of Philip V., (1713—1746,) Gibraltar, and the island of Minorca, were ceded to Great Britain, amounting together to 305 square miles. Under the new dynasty the Spanish dominions, which at its accession amounted in Europe to 168,640 square miles, and in America, to 4,720,000 square miles, remained for fifty years undiminished: because, in the first place, France from an hereditary rival had become a family ally; and because, in the second place, the Netherlands, and the kingdoms of Lombardy and of Naples, which had become the theatre of war, had long ceased to be parts of the Spanish king's heritage. On the establishment of the Bourbons on the throne of the two Sicilies, (1735,) and of Parma and Piacenza, (1748,) it was established by the contracting powers as an indispensable requisite to their consent, that on no contingency of descent should the crowns of the two newly established families be allowed to unite with that of the Spanish Bourbons. On the death without heirs, therefore, of Ferdinand VI., (1746, d. August 15, 1759,) Charles III., king of Naples, being called to the Spanish throne, his second son, Charles, following him to Spain as Prince of the Asturias, on account of the idiocy of his elder brother, the third son, Ferdinand, then eight years old, was proclaimed king of the two Sicilies.

During the reign of Charles III., Spain lifted herself to a level, in some degree, commensurate with her great resources. The acquisition of Louisiana, the conquests among the Portuguese possessions in South America, the recovery of Florida,* the re-conquest of Minorca, (1782,) valuable as they were, were far inferior to the advantages which arose from the restoration of trade, the establishment of manufactures, and the regulation, under Aranda, Compomanes, and the Duke of Herida Blanca, the most eminent statesmen of their day, of the disordered finances of the realm. But promising as was the revival of Spanish power under auspices so happy, it was soon over-balanced by a succession of misfortunes which took their origin in the vacillatory and indolent character of Charles IV. Stretching over a period of twenty years, (13 Dec. 1788, abdicating 19 March, 1808,) and encountering in its lapse the shock of the French revolution, it is not to be wondered that the reign of that unfortunate monarch should have been productive of consequences most grave and disastrous. From the treaty of Basle, (July 22, 1795,) by which a strict alliance

* It is a curious fact, not generally noted by the historians, that Florida had been ceded to England at the first peace of Paris, (1763,) but was ceded back again to Spain in the peace of Versailles, (1783.)

with France was clenched, Spain was exposed to the most lawless incursions, both from the allies whom she acquired, and the enemies she provoked. Fleet after fleet was lost on the high seas; cargoes of gold and silver, fresh from South America, were captured within the ports to which they were bound; a navy, once the most mighty, and then the most cumbrous in Europe, was swept from the ocean; the islands of Trinidad (February 18, 1797) and Minorca, (November 15, 1798,) were successively conquered by the English; and the entire foreign and colonial trade annihilated. By the continental peace, concluded at Amiens on March 17, 1802, a temporary reprieve was obtained, as a price for which, Spain ceded Trinidad to England, and to France the state of Louisiana.

On the renewal of hostilities between France and Great Britain, Spain paid at the commencement, (from October 30, 1803, to December 12, 1804,) a monthly subsidy of 4,000,000 francs, as a price of neutrality. It was not long before the internal dissensions broke out, which led to the overthrow of the reigning family. The seaboard was rent with open rebellion, the interior was distracted with secret intrigue, and the court, whose attention should have been absorbed with the great emergency it was soon to meet, was occupied in the constant bickerings which were taking place between the blind and feeble king and Prince Ferdinand of the Asturias. The three-century bond between Spain and the American colonies was ruptured. The reign of Joseph Napoleon, (from January 6, 1808, to December 8, 1813,) produced nothing more than a temporary influence on the reigning dynasty, as Ferdinand VII. was recognised by the treaty of Paris (1814) as occupying the same throne from which he had been driven by the Emperor of France in 1808. Melancholy, however, was the change between Spain after the restoration, and Spain before the invasion. The American colonies were irrevocably lost—in part by conquest, in part by revolution; and though Ferdinand VII. attempted on his return to recover his alienated possessions, he found his arms too weak to effect so great an enterprise. So exhausted was the strength of the once giant empire of Spain, that after the formal renunciation of Guatimala, (July 1, 1823,)—after the defeat of the Spanish army at Ayacucho, (December 9, 1824,) and the consequential evacuation of Peru,—after the surrender of St. Juan de Ulloa, (November 18, 1825,) by which the last fortress in America was lost,—the mother country gave up all hopes of retaining her ancient authority over her rich, but apostate children. Her territories had lost under the two last mentioned reigns more than 4,600,000 square miles of land, which had been endowed by nature with the most diversified and inexhaustible treasures; and all that remained from a dominion once almost universal in the new world, was the island of Cuba, (46,000 square miles,) called by Ferdinand VII., when all else had deserted him, the "faithful and true;" and St. Juan de Puerto Rico, (3,780 square miles,) with a few of the smaller islands that form part of the great Western Archipelago. The colonies in the other hemisphere are still more unimportant. In Asia, Spain still possesses the Manilla, or Philippine islands, with a part of the surrounding clusters, which are more remarkable for the amount of their territory, (48,400 square miles,) than for the wealth of their trade, or the number of their inhabitants. In Africa, there still remains the first and most historical of the Spanish conquests—the cities of Ceuta, Melilla, Pennon de Velez, and Alhuzemas, with a territory cramped by invasions within 30 square

miles, which formed, centuries ago, the battle-ground where Christians and Moors met in that deadly shock which drove the crescent from the South of Spain, and the north of Africa. As the European territory of Spain, as settled by the Versailles treaty, amounts to 168,940 square miles, 272,080 square miles may be taken as forming the present measure of her possessions in the hemispheres together. On the accession of Maria Isabella II., on September 29, 1833, the kingdom was left to experience, under the imbecile government of an infant queen, those accumulated disasters which the misgovernment of three centuries had produced. In the words of Schubert, one of the most frigid of the German historians, the horrors which have been experienced in the intestine wars that succeeded, have surpassed in terror the utmost atrocities of the dark ages.

II.—THE PHYSICAL RESOURCES OF SPAIN.

1. *Agriculture.*—If the reports of travellers and of foreign geographers can be taken as correct, only one twelfth part of the Spanish soil is now subjected to the plough.* Such does not always appear to have been the case. Miguel Osorio y Redin, who wrote in the last half of the seventeenth century, estimates one half of the Pyrenean peninsula as cultivated; and of that half, two-thirds, at least, of the highest value. The more accurate investigations of the *Junta de medios* rate the superficial area of Spain at 104,197,720 fanegados,† of which the following estimate is reported:—

	Fanegados.	*Acres.*
Cultivated land	55,000,000	60,000,000
Meadow land	15,000,000	16,000,000
Fallow land	13,000,000	14,000,000
Irredeemable land	4,000,000	4,200,000
Swamp and alluvial land	17,194,720	18,500,000
Total	104,194,720	112,700,000

According to the materials laid before the Cortes, the cultivated land at the time of the French invasion, was thus divided:—

	Fanegados.	*Acres.*
The nobility more than one half	28,306,700	30,500,000
The clergy one sixth	9,093,400	10,000,000
The commune of the cities, and a few of the citizens, about one third	17,599,900	19,500,000
Total	55,000,000	60,000,000

In agricultural success, Valencia stands above the remaining provinces, and is exempted, by the blessings she has thus received, from poverty, which would otherwise be universal. She produces, far beyond her wants, rice, corn, oil, and fruits. Granada and Andalusia are more peculiarly adapted for fruits, wine, and the cultivation of the olive, and the interior provinces to the raising and grazing of live-stock, producing no more grain than is necessary for the most meager consumption. In the northern

* A. Borrego, der National reichtum, die Finanzen und die Staatsschuld des Königsreich Spanien. Manheim, 1834. 8vo.

† A fanegado contains 5,500 English square yards.

provinces, where the climate forbids the growth of the olive and the rich fruits of the south, the increased ratio of the population requires a far greater consumption of corn and the coarser grains. By the stimulus thus afforded, agriculture within their limits has been forced to a much higher pitch than it would otherwise have attained; and were it not for the oppressive excise which has been adopted through the whole kingdom, as well as for the total want of internal improvements, the north of Spain might have become the granary of the south of Europe. The relations which might thus have been created, have been reversed. Neglected even more by the hand of man than blessed by the hand of heaven, the districts of Galicia, of Asturia, of Biscay, of Leon, of Arragon, and of Catalonia, capable from nature of the production of an illimitable harvest, have depended on France, on Barbary, and on Sicily, for the ordinary necessaries of life. In the north of Spain, and in the central provinces, the chief implements of agriculture, where the soil permits, are oxen and the plough; although in Laja, the enterprise of the inhabitants has not devised any thing more commodious than the naked hand of the farmer himself.* The harvest takes place usually in the last half of June; the corn is left laying on the fields for weeks, until it can be trodden out by the feet of men or of mules. The straw is suffered to remain on the fields, and the grain itself is carelessly stowed away in rough outhouses, or in caves. The principal productions of the upper provinces are wheat, rice, Indian corn, millet, barley, (both of which are used for fodder,) peas, and beans. According to the census of 1799, the number of inhabitants amounted to 10,380,000, and the average yearly consumption of bread-stuffs to 51,860,000 *fanegas*,† or 81,880,000 bushels; while the average yearly importation of bread-stuffs amounted to 1,000,000 fanegas, or 1,600,000 bushels. Since 1799, the average ratio of the production of corn has been a little greater, not on account of the increased activity of the people at large, but on account of the transfer of labor from sheep-raising to other occupations.

The cultivation of the grape is the branch of industry most suitable to the climate and soil of Spain; and though in the provinces of Granada, Andalusia, Valencia, La Mancha, and Catalonia, alone it is entirely successful, it is spread to a considerable extent over the whole kingdom. In consequence of the wonderful uniformity of successive seasons, there is less fluctuation in the vine crops in the south of Spain, than in any other part of Europe. The average yearly production of wine in the whole kingdom amounts to 36,000,000 *arrobas*, or 145,120,000 gallons; of which one seventeenth part is exported. In Catalonia and Estremadura, brandy is manufactured to a large amount, from inferior wine and the husk and pulp of the grape, and upwards of 240,000 *eimers*, or 4,353,600 gallons, are annually exported. Not less considerable is the amount produced of raisins, which are in part sent in great masses to the interior for home consumption; and part, consisting of 200,000 *centners*,‡ exported to foreign countries. The products of the grape-culture constituted, in 1795, one

* Borrego confesses that the agricultural machinery of Spain, is as coarse and clumsy as imaginable. If English farmers, in states, could be transferred to Spanish farms, the crops would be multiplied ten-fold.

† A fanega is equal to one bushel, two pecks, and two quarts.

‡ A centner is equal to one hundred and three pounds English.

third of the Spanish exports, exceeding in value 150,000,000 *reals*, or $183,740,000.

Malaga stands ahead of her sister provinces, not only in the manufacture of wine, but in the culture of the olive. With seven thousand vineyards, she produces annually 250,000 *cimers* of wine, or over 4,500,000 gallons; and with seven hundred mills for the pressure of the olive, she exports 300,000 *arrobas*, or 1,273,000 gallons; which is nearly equalled by Seville, by Valencia, and by the Balearian islands. The Spanish oil is not equal to the French in quality, or in value, though it very often bears its name. The cultivation of fruit is, by the climate, particularly favored. On the coast of the Mediterranean sea, and on the Balearian islands, in Valencia, in Malaga, and the surrounding towns, the fig and orange are capable of production in the greatest profusion; and though in consequence of the superior facilities of labor and transportation possessed by the adjacent states, they are undersold in the foreign market, they might monopolize, were their natural advantages followed out, the whole exterior demand.

Into the remaining articles of production, it is not necessary for us to inquire. They none of them leave margin for foreign exportation; and but few of them are sufficient for domestic demand. The aggregate value of the agricultural staples of Spain, among which are included cattle and silk, was reported in 1803 at 5,143,938,848 reals, or $639,242,292. Canga-Arguilles, minister of the interior, fifteen years later, raised the average, though without any satisfactory estimates, to 8,572,220,591 reals, or $1,196,527,000. The whole capital employed in agriculture he rates at 68,671,394,866 reals, or $8,584,100,000; and the value of the implements therein used at 3,754,777,659 reals, or $469,345,900.

2. *Grazing.*—The operations of grazing are now regarded by the Spaniards with indifference, even greater than those of agriculture. Every year has witnessed the diminution of those great flocks of sheep, which were spread once over the whole peninsula; and there is every probability to believe, that in a few years more the species will, in that country, be extinct. The reports which we possess concerning the whole grazing interest of Spain are so uncertain, that we shall pass over the less prominent division, and limit our attention to the raising of horses and sheep.*

In the middle ages, there was no branch of industry more profitable to Spain than the trade in horses. Since the opening of the last century, however, so great has been the encroachments by the race of mules upon their more generous predecessors, and so great the devastation from Napoleon's Spanish campaigns, that the authorities of Andalusia were obliged to offer a considerable bounty for the culture of a breed which had once been distinguished for its beauty and numbers. The census of horses, as last taken, amounted to 100,000 head; and though it evidently was based on a miscalculation, there is no reason in rating the present number at more than 250,000. So great has been the decrease, that it is questionable whether a respectable army could be equipped without resort to confiscation.

Still greater, however, has been the depreciation of a staple which was once the richest and most certain in the south of Europe. There was

* Schubert's Algemeine Staatskunde, III. 59, 60. Kottenkamp's Uebersetzung, v. Borrego.

a time when the wool of the merino sheep commanded a price almost inestimable, and when to the Spanish graziers and shepherds, the manufactures of the north were placed in a relation of comparative subjection. It was not long before the inquiries of the surrounding states were awakened as to the permanency of so great a monopoly; and after several attempts to ennoble the native breeds of the north of Europe, by grafting them with their more favored rivals, the invading armies of France, as they recrossed the Pyrenees, managed to carry back with them a large portion of the original race in person. So great had been the increase before the invasion, that at the opening of the eighteenth century, the numbers of sheep in Spain were estimated at from ten to twelve millions. One half of them alone were merinos, which on account of their great tenderness and susceptibility, were carried twice a year from their summer residence, in the stony and exposed mountains of old Castile, Leon, and Arragonia, to the soft and lovely meadows of Granada and Andalusia, where they passed the winter months. In troops of from 1,000 to 1,500 head, they were marched from north to south, convoyed by horsemen who could protect them from incursions, and headed, it is said, by a quarter-master general.* By a royal edict, fences were to be removed from all sections through which they were to pass; and by a species of protection, therefore, which is more simple, though not more effectual than those now in use, the agricultural interests were prostrated at the feet of the manufacturing. Had the transfer of capital thus stimulated, not been carried into effect—had the laborers paid less attention to their sheep, and more to their land—it is not probable, that their century-collected wealth would have been driven off in the van of a French foraging guard. The sheep in 1814 made a longer journey than usual, and found themselves transported in a single trip, from the rich and sunny meadows of their native land, to the cold and thin fields of the northern states.

So costly has become the keeping of the remnant of the ancient flock, so successfully has the merino wool been rivalled in other countries, that in some seasons, the produce of single herds has been less in amount by twenty *per cent* than the sum taken to insure it. The yearly exports to Great Britain of wool have fallen, in the course of the present century, one sixth in their value.

3. *Mining*.—In times long gone, the mines of Spain were famous beyond all of the then civilized world.† The Carthaginians and Phœnicians established colonies on the southern coast of the peninsula, on account of the rich metals it confined; and an active trade was at once started. Many are the allusions in the Roman historians to the statues and medals drawn from the Spanish mines; and Polybius, Livy, and Appianus have left specific enumerations of the booty of a similar order which was brought home from each Punic war. In Asturia, Galicia, and Lusitania, gold was freely found; and the yearly production of the mines was averaged by Pliny at 20,000 lbs.; at a value which has been estimated at 30,000

* Schubert's Spanien. *Schaafzucht*, p. 61. We do not know whether the officers of high rank in the Spanish service were usually so employed; but if so, no small key would be given to their conduct during the peninsular war.

† Plinius Hist. Nat. III. c. 3. "Metallis, plumbi, ferri, aliis, argento, auro tota fertur Hispania scatet; citerior et specularibus lapidibus, Bætica et minio: sunt et marmorum lapidicinæ."

marks, or about 6,000,000 dollars.* In mines both of silver and gold, Spain was considered to bear pre-eminence among ancient nations.† Not less distinguished for their excellence were the mines of quicksilver,‡ of metallic colors,§ of copper, and of lead.‖ Even as late as the middle ages, the mines continued to be worked with activity and regularity; and though the success was not as great as formerly, workmen were collected from all parts of the continent, and the returns were such as to richly remunerate labor of any kind whatever. But the discovery of America, and the opening of the rich and unworked veins which threaded the surface of the new continent, dissipated at once the energies of the native miners. Scarcely in a single province were the old works carried on; and even in those which were still in operation, the profits were found to be less than the cost. In 1535, Charles I., inspired by that same spirit of false benevolence which prompted his family to destroy the industry of Spain under pretence of protecting it, issued an edict, which, after stating the mines of America to afford a more profitable investment than those of the old country, forbade peremptorily the working of the latter as unnecessary. It was not until the eighteenth century that the damper was removed; and then, when at last, at Cazalla, at Constantina, on Sierra Morena, and at Guadalcal in Estremadura, the old works were opened, the enterprise failed for want both of impulsive energy and of permanent support. In a few years the wounds were again filled up, the old station houses removed, the surrounding villages broken up; and when, in another century, the antiquarian explores among the ruins of the Spanish empire the remains of those once magnificent excavations, he will find that veins the most fruitful were deserted at the moment when, at last, by the labor of generations, the secret of their riches had been discovered.

Among the coarser metals, lead has been the most profitably produced. Till the time of Ferdinand VII. the whole business was a monopoly in the hands of the crown; and so great was the rise in the produce of the works when, in 1820, the monopoly was lifted off, that the income was increased in three years fifteen fold.¶ The price of lead was depressed from forty to fifty per cent; but even at the low price to which it had then fallen, the revenue yielded to the government amounted to 3,000,000 dollars.

The next most important mineral production of Spain is quicksilver. The richest mine is at Almada, in the province of Mancha, (Ciudad-Real,) which, since its severance from the government, has been worked with zeal and success. Under Charles III. and Charles IV. the highest annual product was 18,000 hundred weights; and at present, notwithstanding the separation of the American colonies, where quicksilver was of indispensable use in the gold and silver mines, the value produced is averaged at

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* The terms used by Pliny, (L. xxxiii. c. 4,) are worthy of citation: "Vicence trullia pondo ad hunc modum annis singulis Asturiam atque Gallæciam et Lusitaniam præstare quidam tradiderunt, ita ut plurimum Asturia gignat: neque in alia parte terrarum tot seculis hæc fertilitas."

† "Argentum reperitur in Hispania pulcherrimum, id quoque in sterili solo atque etiam montibus; et ubicunque una inverita vena ist, non procul invenitur aliæ."

‡ Pliny, xxxiii. c. 6, u. 8. § Ibid. c. 2, u. 7; iii. c. 3. ‖ Ibid. xxxiv. c. 16.

¶ From 31,000 to 500,000 hundred weight.

22,000 hundred weights. The amount of the quicksilver exported is estimated at 800,000 dollars, of which one fourth is sent to England.

Iron mines are to be found throughout Spain, but more particularly in the Baskischen provinces, in Arragonia, in Biscay, and in Granada. In Guipuzcon, in the former provinces, there are 141 forges; and in Sierra Nevuda the average of iron drawn from the ordinary ore, amounts to eighty-two per cent. The amount produced by the whole realm is at present estimated at 400,000 hundred weight, valued at 700,000 dollars. The entire mineral productions of Spain are valued at 20,000,000 dollars;* and great as is the amount, it would be more than doubled if the mining operations on which it is based, could be supported by one half of the physical strength and mental energy which were displayed by the Spanish armies at the revolution of the Netherlands.

III.—THE MANUFACTURING RESOURCES OF SPAIN.

In the middle ages the domestic industry of Spain was principally oriental. From along the shores of the Mediterranean sea the Arabs had drawn the rude and primary manufactures of those days. The chief staples were produced by Moorish industry alone; the Moors were the most active workmen; and great was the discomfiture to the consumers both of Spain and of the north of Europe, when, through the wars between Castile and Granada, both manufactures and manufacturers were driven from the land. From the days of Ferdinand and Isabella the fall of Spanish manufactures is to be dated. Even during the flush created in the reigns of Charles V. and Philip II., but little impetus was given to the principal branches of Spanish industry; and it is to be questioned whether the splendid schemes of conquest in which those two great monarchs were perpetually engaged,—whether the rich and romantic adventures opened by the discovery of the new world,—whether the spirit of unbending chivalry exhaled by the court and imbibed by the people, did not combine to instil into the minds of the community a contempt for work, which has been a chief ingredient in their subsequent prostration. Don Quixotte would have fought a windmill in the lists, but he never would have submitted to have worked it in the field; and it was because the Spanish people, like their great hero and personification, made war against every species of industry in detail, that industry itself took flight from the Spanish peninsula.

The inferiority of Spanish manufactures was in a small degree removed by the alliance with France, brought about by the accession of the Bourbon family. It is true, a fresh demand was made for the introduction of French and English staples, but at the same time efforts were entered into for the establishment of national manufactures. In the reign of Charles III., laborers were brought into the country from France, Germany, and the Netherlands, in order to stimulate the production of wool, linen, and paper. The attempt was unsuccessful; not because the newly imported workmen were inefficient, but because they were persecuted and driven from the land by the inquisition. Under the reign of Charles IV. still greater obstructions followed from the blockade, by the British fleet, of the principal Spanish ports; and the state of industry was not much bettered under the short supremacy of the Napoleon family, as whatever might

* Schubert's Algemeine Staatskunde, iii. 70.

have been the intention of Joseph, the country was too much occupied with repelling invasion to be able to perform its domestic duties. By the census of 1803, the yearly value of the manufactures was placed at 1,152,650,707 reals. No sooner were the Bourbons restored than they set to work at the great work of protecting Spanish industry, with a vigor, which, if it had been backed by wisdom, might have restored for a time the rapid decline of their heritage. An embargo was at once laid down on the egress of gold, and the ingress of manufactures; and so heavy, so exhausting was the tariff imposed, that if it had not been ridiculously inoperative through the smuggling facilities of the Spanish coast, it would have sequestered Spain for the time being from the rest of the commercial world. Smugglers sentry the whole shore; and over the Pyrenees, through Gibraltar, through the whole rocky coast both of the Mediterranean and of the Atlantic, goods have been introduced so freely and so cheaply as to throw out of market at once the native productions. Patriotic associations have been formed, pledging their members to buy domestic manufactures alone; but whether the manufactures in question are not to be found, or the people themselves are unwilling to take them, there has been but little essential change through their exertions. Even according to the most sanguine calculations of the government, there has been a falling off rather than an increase since the commencement of the present century.*

1. *Wool.*—The wool manufactures are by no means commensurate in quantity or in quality to the raw article as it is produced in the surrounding country. The finest wool is sent abroad; and even of that which remains, not more than one half is made up by domestic labor. So inefficient are the Spanish manufacturers, that notwithstanding the cost of importation and the enormous tariff imposed, notwithstanding the fact that there are laborers in plenty on the very spot where the wool is produced, the balance against Spain in the article of woollen goods alone, amounts to 700,000 dollars. The average yearly value of the woollen productions of Spain was placed in 1803 at 123,091,848 reals, or about 15,373,980 dollars. The proper value amounts now to about $8,000,000, or about one ninth of the entire produce of Spain.

2. *Cotton.*—The cotton manufactures are the youngest in Spain, and are even more inefficient than those of wool, as the balance against them and in favor of those of France and Great Britain, is as great as 4,000,000 dollars. The average produce of the cotton manufactures is placed at 48,168,098 reals, or 6,021,012 dollars.

3. *Linen.*—The quantity of linen manufactured in Spain falls as the demand for it increases. The average produce is now placed at 192,853,413 reals, or about 22,731,600 dollars, though the estimate is based upon reports so exaggerated as to deprive them of implicit credence.

It is unnecessary to enter at large upon the long though feeble catalogue of Spanish manufactures. In that long period of time which has intervened between the death of Charles V. and the succession of Maria Isabella, every specific article of production has been in turn patronized, and while the most exorbitant bounties were offered to the home manufacturer, the most exclusive duties were thundered against those of foreign states. A net was hung over the Spanish ports which caught and inter-

* Borrego, der National reichtum, p. 33.

cepted whatever might savor of competition; and before a century elapsed, so effectual had been the working of the established policy, that the commerce of the realm was dead and the manufactures in premature old age. So enervated, so impoverished had the people become from their deprivation of the commonest foreign conveniences, and confinement to branches of labor to which neither their constitutions nor their climate was suitable, that they have sunk down into a state of degradation and beggary which the inhabitants of the most miserable poorhouse would scorn.

IV.—THE TRADING INTERESTS OF SPAIN.

Washed through almost her whole boundary by the two great seas of the old world, pierced through her whole coast with harbors the most commodious and accessible, Spain possesses facilities for commerce unsurpassed by those of any of the surrounding European nations. To the east and southeast she forms the gate-way to the commerce of those great regions which are spread beyond the Atlantic ocean; and so vast are the advantages as a carrying nation that her position gives her, that had she not stood with her arms folded during the struggle which has gone on among her neighbors during the last century, she might have swept into her bosom, by the very passive tendency of gravitation, a large portion of the trade carried onward through the Mediterranean. Her facilities she has neglected and abused. When every other nation was struggling vehemently for precedence in the race after the golden apple, she has looked on from a distance with apathy, and has suffered the prize to pass by her feet without making an effort to seize it. Not a ship does she send out from her spacious ports, except on the most urgent domestic necessity; and so great has been her fall, that from being once the most opulent of European traders, she now has to resort to her rivals to enable her to procure, through their bottoms, the most simple articles of home consumption.

The internal trade is in a position still worse. Those deep but narrow rivers which separate from one another countries the most various and fertile, have been spanned sometimes only by boards, on which the goat himself, their principal passenger, is a afraid to tread; and on spots where industry, to say nothing of enterprise, would in a few days have cleared the way, obstructions have have been suffered to remain which destroyed the channel and corrupted the stream. Madrid exhibits an appearance of wealth, not from the fertility of its domestic resources, but from the great quantity of wealth that is brought annually to its treasury by the noblemen who draw from their distant estates money which they spend in the capital; and though in Madrid the company of the *Gremios* are established,—a company of merchants of great character and credit, who receive the money of the capitalists at from 3 to 3½ *per cent* interest and invest it in the business of trade,—the inherent commercial energies of the city are extinct. The capital of the St. Ferdinand's Bank, situated in Madrid, as established by the decrees of July 9, 1829, was 60,000,000 reals, or about 7,500,000 dollars, divided into 20,000 equal shares.

The external trade of Spain is now limited very much to her few remaining American provinces. The following tables exhibit both her colonial and her foreign trade towards the close of the last century.

		Reals.	Dollars.
1788.	Imports to the Am. col. from Spain...	500,000,000=	62,000,000.
"	Exports from the Am. col. to Spain...	800,000,000=	100,000,000.

For the same period, the trade with all the European nations together, is stated to be—

Exports.

1787....178,000,000 reals,....or....22,000,000 dollars.
1788....295,456,178 reals,....or....36,900,000 dollars.
1789....289,900,000 reals,....or....36,200,000 dollars.
1792....396,000,000 reals,....or....49,400,000 dollars.

Imports.

1787....642,000,000 reals,....or....80,200,000 dollars.
1788....666,000,000 reals,....or....82,000,000 dollars.
1789....717,379,388 reals,....or....89,800,000 dollars.
1792....715,000,000 reals,....or....89,400,000 dollars.

The commercial alliance between France and Spain, by the peace of Basle and the treaty of Ildefonso, (1796,) brought considerable disadvantage to the Spanish shipping. The hostilities which followed, drove the Spanish ships from the high seas; the Spanish navy was annihilated; the Spanish commerce was destroyed; and when Spain, on the return of peace, attempted to recover her old footing, she found the South American trade wholly occupied by Great Britain and the United States. The whole exports of Spain, colonial and foreign, had fallen in 1808 to $20,000,000, a loss of nearly 400 per cent; while so great was the drain of wealth caused by the disproportion of the counterbalancing imports, that the country was impoverished and involved. The *Junta de medios*, which sat from 1811 to 1813, estimated the whole mercantile capital of Spain, including that employed in coasting, or fishing, at 5,000,000,000 reals, or about 625,000,000 dollars; and the yearly value of Spanish trade, at 466,363,516 reals, or about 58,200,000 dollars.

The restoration of the Bourbons worked no benefit to Spanish trade. The American colonies were lost irrevocably—the trade with them, as dependants, was forever gone; and the mother country, instead of seeking, as had been the case with both England and France, under similar circumstances, to establish new and profitable commercial treaties, laid an embargo between herself and her revolted subjects, which cut off the remaining avenue of her wealth. Unable as we are, through the inefficiency of the government and the confusion of the realm, to collect an adequate notion of the present state of her trade, we can judge, by taking the rough, though large estimate of twenty-five million of dollars as its value, of how great the fall has been since the days which preceded the French revolution. Both her imports and her exports are now of the same amount; as that ancient fund of gold which once made up the deficiency, has been long since exhausted. The wholesale business is almost limited to the hands of English dealers in the more accessible of the Spanish ports, and it is said that through the whole kingdom there is scarcely a large Spanish importing house of respectability. Cadiz, which as early as 1801, jutted out on the map as the most prominent of the Spanish harbors, and monopolized at that time six sevenths of the foreign commerce, still receives one third part of the shipping, and bids fair to maintain its place at the head of the peninsula sea-ports. Barcelona, which is second in rank, is estimated to command one sixth of the foreign trade, valued at four million dollars.

The colonial trade of Spain is the last remnant of her once splendid maritime sovereignty. The estimate value of the united exports and imports of the island of Cuba, in 1833 and 1834, averaged over 33,750 piasters, or 50,000,000 dollars; of which one fourth was connected with the United States, one seventh to Great Britain, one seventh to the Hanseatic towns, one twentieth to France and Russia, and the remainder to Spain. The annual income of the island amounted to 9,500,000 piasters, or about 15,000,000 dollars; of which three fifths was drawn from customs.* The exports of Porto Rico, for 1834, are rated at 4,500,000 piasters; and consisted of sugar, coffee, tobacco, cocoa, and cotton. The income derived by the government was 2,100,000 piasters.

To enter further into the commerce of Spain is not our purpose. A ruin it is of what was once a vast and splendid edifice; and the dimensions of the fragments which are strewn around, are of more importance to the antiquarian than to the merchant. It is on such a spot, however, that the political economist should stop, and leaning on the shaft of some broken column, with his eye fixed on the rich and lovely landscape around him, with a climate most benignant and equal, with a soil most fertile and various, inquire into the causes which brought about destruction so rapid and unsparing. The next generation will read of Spanish galleons, and Spanish three-deckers; and will wonder where was the wealth that required such huge protection, or the strength that afforded it. The epitaph of Spain, as a commercial nation, should be written for the use of those who may wander over the ruins among which she lies; and well will it be for her rivals and successors if they improve the experience she affords, before it is brought home to them by their own misfortunes. After a brief view of the present finances of the Spanish kingdom, we shall conclude this article by considering the cause of that commercial decline which it has been our object to exhibit.

So disordered, so exhausted, are the finances of Spain, that it will require more than ten years of peace and prosperity to discharge the debts with which they are loaded, and to redeem the obligations it has incurred. According to official statement, the debt in July, 1840, consisted of foreign and domestic loans bearing interest of from four to five per cent, amounting to 5,419,748,553 reals, or 677,331,069 dollars; and of loans bearing no interest, amounting to 12,429,833,322 reals, or 1,553,729,165 dollars; of which 9,533,844,347 reals was vested in domestic *active* funds, and 461,604,947 reals in domestic *passive* funds. The whole amount of the Spanish debt is rated at 17,849,581,905 reals, or about 2,231,190,000 dollars. As the necessities of the government have increased, the means of satisfying them have diminished; and it is now a fact which is, perhaps, without example among debt-incurring nations, that the deficit of each year is equal to its income. According to the budget of 1839, the gross income amounted to 837,974,785 reals, while the expenses of the same year reached 1,556,094,191 reals. In 1840, the expenses of the state had risen to 1,690,298,172 reals, or 211,274,771 dollars; being more than twice the revenue for the same year. In the budget of 1840, the civil list was rated at 43,000,000 reals, or 5,362,000 dollars. The national debt requires 306,568,287 reals to keep down its

* For a full and accurate account of the commerce of Cuba, the reader should consult the Merchants' Magazine, October, 1842.

interest; of which 97,834,631 reals are devoted to the payment of that due at home; 200,852,196 reals to that due abroad; 6,729,383 reals to the cost of its disbursement; and 1,152,077 reals to various creditor corporations. The expenses of the government, civil, diplomatic, and municipal, are placed at 328,551,495 reals. The minister of war receives 771,843,560 reals; of which 280,423,407 reals are the ordinary appropriation, and 491,420,153 reals consist of the extraordinary expenses of the war. How long the present high-pressure system of borrowing to pay the current expenses of the year, together with half the interest of the old debt can last, a few more budgets will prove. The crown lands have been now almost all sold to conceal or destroy deficits, and the time will soon come, if it has not come already, when the Spanish treasury will be bankrupt.

It will be seen by a general review of the preceding pages, that the territory of Spain has been dismembered; her colonies torn away; her credit broken; her wealth dissipated; and her prosperity destroyed. We believe that the cause of so great, so melancholy a fall, is to be traced to her own commercial legislation. She has from the beginning of her history, as an independent nation, aimed at the one great object of commercial isolation; and though her facilities for production have been vast, and her means of transportation unlimited, she has destroyed her trade; she has cut off the supplies of her inhabitants, and rendered useless their industry, by a system of prohibition which has thrown her back three centuries in civilization. It has been asserted lately, on the floor of the Senate, that the policy of Spain was free trade, and that to that policy her destruction was to be traced. For the sake of correcting in detail, an error so vital, we subjoin the Spanish tariff, as it at present exists. It will be seen, that of the fifteen classes of which it consists, almost the whole are virtually prohibited; and that by the operation of the aggregate, revenue, commerce, and manufactures must be destroyed:—

1. Grain, provisions, fish of all kinds, wines, oils, and some small articles, as starch, roots, straw; of these, seventy-two articles are entirely prohibited, including corn and seeds, and food, and all kinds of salted and pickled fish, of whatever kind, (except stock-fish and Newfoundland cod-fish, at high discriminating duties.)

2. Animals of all kinds—importation prohibited, and exportation subject to high duties, except on merino sheep, black-cattle, and horses, which are prohibited.

3. Drugs, herbs, roots, barks, seeds, &c., for dyeing, painting, and other uses; wax, tallow, pitch, &c., exhibit a list amounting to upwards of four hundred articles, out of which number there are nearly one hundred total prohibitions.

4. Includes hides, and skins, of common description, dressed and undressed, tanned, &c.; fine peltry of all kinds, either in the hair, dressed, or tanned, and all articles made of the above. These articles amount to about eighty in number, out of which there are sixty-four *prohibitions*.

5. Manufactures of flax, hemp, cotton, and wool, of all kinds, containing about ninety articles; out of which, there are forty-two prohibitions, and those admitted are of very little value.

6. Wool and hair manufactured, including goats' hair, bristles, horse-hair, feathers, and human hair; consists of about seventy-seven articles, and contains sixty-three prohibitions.

7. Comprises manufactures of silk only, or of silk mixed with wool, gold, or silver, and is, with but two exceptions, (silk twist, or Turin hair, and raw or spun silk of all sorts,) entirely prohibited.

8. Includes cabinet-ware, furniture, and other utensils of wood, horn, shell, ivory, mother-of-pearl, &c., or of ornaments made thereof; and in this class are also comprised the original raw materials, in all about eighty articles, with thirty-nine prohibitions.

9. Instruments and machines of all kinds,—nearly all of a prohibitory character.

10. Toys and jewelry of all kinds, open or in boxes. This is a most extensive class; it contains nearly three hundred distinct articles, out of which there are but twenty-three prohibitions; but the duties are enormous.

11. Paper of all kinds and qualities,—entirely prohibited.

12. Includes all manufactures of crystals and glass, of stone and minerals, of porcelain and earthenware; contains about ninety articles, of which thirteen only are entirely prohibited; the duties are also enormous.

13. Comprises metals, wrought, unwrought, or manufactured; and contains nearly the same number of articles as the preceding class, out of which there appears to be about thirty-five prohibitions; and the duties on the others all excessive, with the exception of tools, &c.

14. Contains all descriptions of the precious metals, gold and silver, in bullion, or wrought in jewelry, &c.; amounts to seventy-two articles, with but three total prohibitions.

15. Includes common timber for naval, house, and other purposes, fine wood for cabinet-work, and dyeing woods, &c., nearly fifty descriptions, and no PROHIBITIONS; although cork in boards, or prepared for bottles, and tanning barks of all kinds, included under this class, are strictly prohibited.

Such is the present tariff of Spain; and though it is far lighter than that which controlled the commerce and manufactures of the realm till as late as the eighteenth century, it will be seen that it is essentially prohibitive. Its object is not revenue, but protection; and it stands forth as the most tangible instance, in commercial history, of that system of unequal legislation, which for the sake of fostering one tenth of the community, destroys the remainder. We shall conclude this article by inquiring briefly, what have been the legitimate results of the Spanish tariff, first on the manufactures, and secondly, on the trade of the kingdom.

1. It was for the manufactures alone that the system was devised. Rise they should; and though for many of them the country was highly unsuitable, though in order to support most of them, laborers were to be drawn from objects far more congenial and lucrative, they were to be forced upwards by every stimulant of hot-bed growth which the ingenuity of the master gardener could devise. With one hand, Philip II. drove the Lutheran mechanics from the sea-port towns; with another, forced laborers from the vineyards to supply their place; and while the portcullis of a high tariff was let down to prevent foreign competition, every aid which government could afford, was tendered to the manufacturing interests. The result has been told. The gist of commerce is reciprocity; and so long as foreign countries had been allowed to exchange their manufactures for Spanish wine and wool, the people on both sides had been sup-

plied, not only with enough of their own products, but enough of their neighbors', and the whole vast machinery worked with ease. But scarcely had the protective system gone into operation, before the wine-growing and the grazing interests dwindled, and the manufacturers started up to extraordinary splendor. For a while they retained their luxuriance; but before the time of what would otherwise have been their maturity, had arrived, they wilted away under the hot sun of that same tariff which had first forced them into life, and are now capable of little else than of producing the coarsest articles, at a cost so enormous, that nothing but the greatest duties can carry them to the market. Their fate can easily be explained. When the first tariff was laid, a change of labor took place. The laborer found it more profitable to leave the plough, and enlist himself in the liveried ranks of the manufacturers. Foreign goods were raised to treble their old cost, and it became cheaper to manufacture something of the same description at home. Foreign nations were still in want of Spanish wool and Spanish wine; but as they could no longer send manufactures in return, they were obliged to buy up the precious metals, and send them to Spain in return. There was soon a great influx of bullion to the Spanish ports. Greatly as the agricultural interests had suffered, the foreign demand for their staples was still considerable; and as nothing like a fair exchange was permitted, whenever a tun of wine or a bale of wool left Spain, it was paid for by the solid specie at which it was valued. The manufacturers became rapidly rich from the constant current of gold to their coffers; and as they became richer, the price of labor raised, and the cost of producing the home article increased in proportion. At first, two hundred *per cent* was enough to exclude most foreign manufactures from the market; but as through the glut of gold in the manufacturing interests, and through the security and indifference into which the manufacturers were thrown, domestic manufactures became both coarser and dearer, a tariff still heavier than the last was demanded and passed. Generation after generation, fresh duties were asked. As soon as the manufacturers were in danger of being undersold, they obtained another layer of duties, and again the same old process went on,—specie poured in, domestic goods rose in value, labor went up still higher, and huge as the tariff had already become, in a little while another still huger was demanded. To such a progression, however, there must always be an end; and the protected interests found, that after going up stairs, step after step, for a time, they had come to a pitch where they could get no higher. They had received the greatest stimulants which it was in the power of government to give, they had reached a vast, though an unnatural luxuriance, and when the level of protection had been reached beyond which it was impossible to go, they sank back at once into their original imbecility. Their strength, like that produced by intoxication, had been fictitious, not constitutional; and when the drug which excited them was removed, they fell back into a state of nerveless inefficiency, which was aggravated and rendered more wretched by the dregs of the stimulants which had acted on it.

If the protective system has been injurious to the manufacturing interests of Spain, it has been still more so to her commercce. Her shipping it has utterly destroyed. Duties of from 50 to 100 per cent, provocative of high retaliatory duties from other countries, have been laid for more than two centuries on foreign ships and cargoes on their arrival at Span-

ish ports. So entirely have the exporting interests been destroyed, that there is little to carry out of the country, and still less that is allowed to come in; and in consequence, every thing like shipping has ceased to exist. If we look around in Spain in search of those great natural productions which belong to every other nation on the globe, we will find, that rich as was her soil, benignant as was her climate, the war which has been waged by her government against her productive interests has been successful. Vineyards once fruitful have been deserted; mines once ponderous with the most precious metals have become clogged and choked by the rubbish of generations; manufactories where the Moor and the reformed Christian had once produced fabrics the most beautiful in Europe, have become silent; and a few casks of wine, with a few barrels of grapes, are the residuary legatees of the commerce of the Spanish peninsula. That the destruction of the producing interests of Spain was a necessary result of her protective system, is obvious. The essence of trade, we have said already, is its reciprocity; and when Spain refused to take the staples of foreign nations, they were made incapable of taking hers in return. With the one article of wool in her hands, she was able to buy from the neighboring countries the productions most suitable to their respective climates. The hemp and the tallow of Russia, the silks of France, the cotton goods of England, the neat wood-work of the German states, she was able to buy, and to buy for nothing, through the superabundance of one of her staples alone. The moment she refused to receive the produce of foreign countries, she stopped the demand for her own. The wool-raiser gave up raising wool, because it was not paid for; and betook himself to manufactures, the fate of which we have mentioned. The result of the protective system of Spain was to drive labor from the fields to the factories, and to destroy it when it had got there. The blood of the kingdom was drawn from its heart and thrown into a limb, which called, before long, for the hand of the surgeon for its amputation.

There is a passage in Schiller's Don Carlos, which we are tempted to translate, not only from its beautiful appropriateness to the points we have been making, but from the wisdom of the doctrines it unfolds. The Marquis Von Posa, who, though somewhat radical in his opinions in comparison with the court of Spain, had been admitted within the council chamber of Philip II., takes advantage of his temporary vantage ground to press upon the monarch the danger of the course he was pursuing.

VON POSA.— Yet you hope
To end what now you have begun; you hope
To check the ripening course of Christendom;
To blight the universal spring that now
Is playing o'er the world's broad countenance.
In Europe, you would be supreme; and here,
Into the track in which the rolling world
Pursues appointedly its onward course,
You would stretch out your human arm, and grasp,
With heavy clutch, upon its jutting spokes.
Oh no! It all is fruitless! Thousands fly
From the cold vineyards of your lands! They fly
Poor, but contented.

With extended arms
Elizabeth receives them; England blooms
In fruitfulness through our transplanted vigor.

Oh! could the inarticulate voice of those,
—Those countless multitudes,—whose fate is resting
On your decision, speak from my poor lips!
Look round you, and observe the glorious form
Of the broad universe! On liberty
Its laws are founded, and in liberty
Its farthest pulse is beating! Each slight worm
Has its own drop of dew; its little world
In whose enjoyment it may freely riot.
To man himself is spread an open choice
Between the paths which lead to good or evil.
Even the charnel-house of sin, the soul,
In its free will, may enter. Now turn round,
And look at your proud system. At the flutter
Of a dry leaf, the lord of Europe trembles.
You shudder e'en at virtue's footsteps. He,
—The master artist, who, forever veiled
Behind the majesty of his far throne,
Acts silently,—He, that his great scheme
Of man's free will should not be lost, or shaken,
Allows the troops of sin to spread abroad
Their flaunting banners to the giddy wind,
And court recruits.

KING.— But think you, could I safely
Work out, in Spain, the plans which here you weave?

VON POSA.—On you, alone, the task depends. Devote
The royal power to the people's good.
By the encroachments of the crown, their rights
Have been prostrated. Lift them up again!
Restore the fallen grandeur of our race!
And then, when you have raised the name of Spain
To its old dignity, when you have poured
Their long lost liberties upon the people,
When of all others on the earth, *your* lands
Are the most happy, it will then be time
To conquer others.

Spain has fallen; and the great, the only cause of her fall, is the interference of her government in the domestic affairs of her people. No scope was allowed to the oscillation of free will. That natural cycloid, in the arc of which the human mind when unrestrained must swing, was narrowed down till the pendulum fell into a rest from which it could never since be startled. It was the policy of Philip II. to destroy the individuality of the component members of the state, to let every private feeling sink, to force every private ambition to give way, and to consolidate every interest in his wide realm into one great harmonious centre. Forgetting that the best course for a complex body to pursue, is the resultant struck by the different forces that enter into it, he employed his long life, his vast power, his sleepless industry, in annihilating every element which could not be neutralized or submerged. His ambition was effected. The Moorish laborers were chained in the galleys. The protestant mechanics were immured in the inquisition. Foreign merchants were warned away from the coasts of Spain by penalties the most severe and inevitable. Foreign ships were scared from the coast by gunboats and explosion-batteries. The half-ruined lighthouses which the older kings had erected, were torn down; and the rocky promontories of the

peninsula were provoked to extend still further their barricadoes against the invasion of trade. The strong hand of the government spanned itself over the laborers who were toiling quietly and fruitfully in their familiar vineyards and pastures, and after tearing them away from their ancient pursuits, fastened them down at manufactures which they could neither like nor understand. In the course of a single century, Spain, from being the most mighty among European powers, lost both her strength and her name, and became the prey of whomsoever was enterprising or unscrupulous enough to attempt her dismemberment.

It will not be out of place for us to consider, in conclusion, the close connection that exists between unrestricted commerce and popular liberty. Even were it to be admitted, that a system which chokes up one channel of industry in order that it may let the tide into another; which transplants labor from a soil where it has flourished, into a soil where its roots find no home; which scourges the seller from a dear market to a cheap market, and the buyer from a cheap market to a dear market, in order that it may follow out some wild theories it has formed in the ignorance of sequestration;—even were it to be admitted, we say, that such a system is reconcilable with the personal liberty of the subject, there are considerations which arise from the result itself of restricted trade, which show how injurious it is to the comfort and competency of the citizen. To the rulers of this young and vast republic we would commend the inquiry, how far cheapness and variety in clothing and provisions conduce to the peace, the content, the happiness, and consequently to the liberty of the community. Just in proportion as barriers are let down against the free interchange of the staples of neighboring nations, in that very proportion has misery and want existed. The manufacturers of Manchester, of Paisley, of Sheffield, of Birmingham,—the very men for whose benefit the most intricate reticulation of protective duties on record has been woven,—are starving among the looms, the shuttles, the gay calicoes, and the fine cloths of their workshops. The sleek and nimble shafts of the steam-engine, plying away day after day in their ceaseless and foodless labors, drive each week from employment human workmen, who are discharged because they must eat and drink, and who are forced to betake themselves to the poorhouse; where, with their self-respect gone, their power of self-support gone, their identity blotted out, their names scratched from the list of independent agents, they fall back into a state of torpor which is only relieved by the occasional ebullition of despair. Children, misshapen and nerveless, imbued with the helplessness of childhood, without its thoughtlessness, with their foreheads wrinkled with anxiety and premature care; men and women in middle age, so worn down with the monotonous repetition of one little workhouse motion, so exhausted with the perpetual turning of a single shuttle, or the incessant working of a lathe, that they drag out years of equal poverty without the power of change or the capacity of hoping; old men who are old in body more than in years, and who sink down into the earth without that glorious hope which the gospel holds out to the meanest among men, because their minds have become so emasculated through oppression and want that their heart has failed in its office of faith before the fountains within it have ceased to beat;—these form, and we fear will long continue to form, the ingredients of a population who are forced from agriculture into manufactories by the exhaustion of a high protective tariff. Most successfully in

such a sphere has the hand of man intercepted the bounties of nature. If the statesman who first effectuated that system of high protection, could place himself on some high mountain, where, with an eye unclouded by those moats which cut short too often the wisest lessons, he could see the countries of the earth with their rich and various climates, their numberless and fertile soils, their vast and assorted inhabitants—where he could observe how exquisitely each member of the great system joins into its neighbor, and with what matchless harmony their various productions unite till together they afford a full measure of every comfort which could make man happy and contented—he would give up the hope of cutting off from the surrounding nations the one country in which he might live, and rest satisfied with the conviction that the world was made as a whole, and that as a whole its component fragments should be held together.

We look forward to the period, when by the means of unrestricted trade, the inhabitants of the remotest countries will be able to obtain their reciprocal commodities for the mere price of transportation, as the opening of an era which will bring to the human race the ultimate happiness which it is possible in its present state of probation to attain. Never till then, never till each nation feels its dependence upon its neighbors for its chief individual blessings, will the danger of war be removed. As the members of one great harmonious family, who have been taught by the discords of civil war to feel how efficient is that unity which arises from mutual want and mutual necessity, the countries of the earth will be bound together by ties which no transient impulse will be able to break. Like a river which has been for years choked by the obstacles which the artifice or the ignorance of man has thrown into its channel, the course of the human race to those great blessings which are placed before it has been checked and clogged; but let the barriers be once removed, and then the waters which once were stagnant and depressed, will gain their proper level. It is by the free and broad medium of commerce alone, that we can hope to communicate to nations which rest in darkness the temporal convenience of those institutions under which our prosperity is sheltered, and the everlasting sanction of that gospel through which our happiness exists.

Art. II.—ANALYSIS OF BOOKKEEPING AS A BRANCH OF GENERAL EDUCATION.

There is perhaps no department of commercial education that claims so urgently the serious attention of the mercantile community as that of bookkeeping. We enter upon the subject with a full knowledge of the obstinate prejudice that has hitherto withstood all efforts towards promoting a general system of school instruction in the arrangement of accounts. Wherever the subject has been advanced, we have, until within a short period, uniformly heard the one reply, "Bookkeeping can only be acquired by practice; you may teach a little theory, but the practice is so different, that we have more trouble with a beginner, who has been taught in school, than with one who has never studied it." Are we then to adopt the conclusions to which these premises must inevitably drive us? Of the number of clerks employed in business, perhaps about one in ten has opportunity of practice; are we to conclude that the other nine tenths

have no remedy for ignorance with regard to a subject which so deeply concerns their interests? Are that portion who are to become merchants to despair of attaining the necessary knowledge of supervising their own affairs? And so long as these opinions prevail, are we to wonder if wholesale frauds are practised,—are allowed to pass undetected for years, and that too in public institutions? While every other subject, in the whole range of science, is universally admitted to be beyond comparison most successfully acquired through having its elements carefully laid down and settled in language selected with the most scrupulous care, shall we conclude that bookkeeping is incapable of explanation? Or shall we not rather adopt the alternative of inquiring what more can be done in the analysis and arrangement of its elementary principles?—whether in the various systems that have been tried, the instruction has been built on a sure foundation; that is, whether the mind has been directed in the outset to those features of the subject which are at once seen to be conformable to some general and self-evident truths?

It is not our purpose, however, to enter upon any extended or abstract discussion involving the more general principles of the philosophy of teaching. We propose to give no less than a practical demonstration that the principles of double-entry can be made as familiar to schoolboys as the first rules of arithmetic. In order to effect this, and to show beyond dispute what constitutes the true elementary principles of the subject, we must give a brief example of Day-book, Journal, and Ledger, and then proceed with our analysis.

DAY BOOK.

NEW YORK, NOVEMBER 1ST, 1842.

Commenced business this day with a capital of			8,000	00
Of which we have in Cash	3,000	00		
In notes and accept'ces of various individuals, (Bills Receiv.)	4,000	00		
James Brown owes us on account	1,000	00		
2				
Bought Merchandise amounting per Invoice to	2,000	00		
For which we have paid in Cash			2,000	00
3				
Bought Merchandise amounting per Invoice to	1,800	00		
For which we are indebted to John Thompson			1,800	00
4				
Bought Merchandise amounting per Invoice to	2,500	00		
For which we issued our note in payment			2,500	00
5				
Bought Merchandise amounting per Invoice to	1,500	00		
In payment for which we gave our note for			750	00
And paid the balance in Cash			750	00
6				
Sold Merchandise amounting per Invoice to			3,000	00
For which we received in Cash	3,000	00		
7				
Sold Merchandise amounting per Invoice to			2,500	00
For which we received the buyer's note for	1,800	00		
And the balance in Cash	700	00		
8				
Sold Merchandise amounting to			1,300	00
For which the buyer, John Thompson, owes us	1,300	00		
9				
Bought the schooner Wave for	4,000	00		
For which we gave in payment our note for			4,000	00
10				
Bought Merchandise amounting to	3,000	00		
In payment for which we gave as follows:—				

DAY BOOK.

NEW YORK, NOVEMBER 10, 1842.—*Continued.*

John King's note for	2,000			
William Harris's for	1,000		3,000	00
The discount allowed on the above notes was		35	00	
Which discount was paid in Cash			35	00
11				
The schooner Wave has cost for repairs		350	00	
Which we have paid in Cash			350	00
12				
We have negotiated (or disposed of) Henry Pell's note for			1,000	00
And allowed a discount (which is a loss of)		15	00	
We received in Cash		985	00	
13				
Sundry acc'ts rendered to us for store expenses, viz :—Coal bill		15	00	
" " Carpenter's bill,		25	00	
" " Painter's bill,		10	00	
All of which we have paid in Cash,			50	00
14				
The schooner Wave has produced for freight			200	00
Which we have received in Cash		200	00	
15				
We have redeemed our note of 4th instant for		2,500	00	
On which we are allowed a discount for the time it has to run			15	00
We paid for said note in Cash			2,485	00
16				
Bought Merchandise amounting to		2,800	00	
For which we are indebted to John Thompson			2,800	00
17				
We have given our note to John Thompson for			2,800	00
For which he is accountable to us		2,800	00	
18				
Sold Merchandise for			1,500	00
For which we received the buyer's note		1,500	00	
19				
An account is rendered us for Blank Books, &c		57	00	
Which we have paid in Cash			57	00
20				
We have this day taken an account of Stock, and value Merchandise unsold at	8,500 00			
We value the schooner Wave at	4,300 00			

N. B.—Should some of our readers be disposed to object to the language of the above entries as not being sufficiently mercantile, we beg to observe that they are not given as such. We think it best that the pupil should be told in the fullest and plainest way possible what has taken place. When he understands the theory of debit and credit, he will soon acquire the best forms of expression.

JOURNAL.

NEW YORK, NOVEMBER 1ST, 1842.

	Debits.		Credits.	
Cash	3,000	00		
Bills Receivable	4,000	00		
James Brown	1,000	00		
Stock			8,000	00
Reasons for the above Entries.—The debit of the Cash account must contain the Cash on hand beginning, and all receipts.				
2.—The debit of Bills Receivable account must contain all such paper on hand beginning, and all received since.				
3.—Each person's account must be charged with all that he is indebted.				
4.—Stock account must be credited with the capital, (see Ledger.)				
2				
Merchandise	2,000	00		
Cash			2,000	00
Reasons.—Merchandise account must be debited with all it costs. Cash account must be credited with all payments.				

The above examples will be sufficient to show that as the reason for each Journal entry is drawn from the account in the Ledger to which it relates, it would be useless for the learner to attempt to understand the Journal until he is made fully acquainted with all the accounts in the Ledger: he will then see the reasons for each entry, as fully as he could desire, without explanation.

The Journal then, is merely an expedient to convey the proper entries for every transaction, to the Ledger, each item being assigned to its respective account, whether debit or credit. We therefore proceed to the Ledger :—

LEDGER.

Received. **CASH.** *Paid.*

1842						1842					
Nov.	1	On hand commencing	3,000	00		Nov.	2	Paid	2,000	00
"	6	Received	3,000	00		"	5	"	750	00
"	7	"	700	00		"	10	"	350	00
"	12	"	985	00		"	11	"	35	00
"	14	"	200	00		"	13	"	50	00
						"	15	"	2,485	00
						"	19	"	57	00
		Total received $7,885						Total paid $5,727		

Received. **BILLS RECEIVABLE.** *Disposed of.*

Nov.	1	On hand commencing	4,000	00		Nov.	11	Disposed of 2 notes	3,000	00
"	7	Received	1,800	00		"	12	" "	1,000	00
"	18	"	1,500	00						
		Total received $7,300						Tot. dispos'd of $4,000		

Redeemed. **BILLS PAYABLE.** *Issued.*

Nov.	15	Redeemed	2,500	00		Nov.	4	Issued	2,500	00
						"	5	"	750	00
						"	9	"	4,000	00
						"	17	"	2,800	00
								Total issued $10,050		

Dr. **JOHN THOMPSON.** *Cr.*

Nov.	8		1,300	00		Nov.	3		1,800	00
"	17		2,800	00		"	16		2,800	00
		Total $4,100						Total $4,600		

Dr. **JAMES BROWN.** *Cr.*

Nov.	1		1,000	00						

RESOURCES.			*LIABILITIES.*		
Merchandise, valued at	8,500	00	Bills Payable unredeemed	7,550	00
Schooner Wave	4,300	00	John Thompson, owing to him	500	00
Cash on hand	2,158	00	Total	8,050	00
Bills Receivable on hand	3,300	00			
James Brown owes us	1,000	00	$19,258 00 8,050 00		
Total	19,258	00	PRESENT WORTH $11,208 00		

LEDGER.

STOCK.

					1842 Nov.	1	Capital commencing...	8,000	00

MERCHANDISE.

Outlay.					*Returns.*				
1842 Nov.	2		2,000	00	1842 Nov.	6		3,000	00
"	3		1,800	00	"	7		2,500	00
"	4		2,500	00	"	8		1,300	00
"	5		1,500	00	"	18		1,500	00
"	10		3,000	00	"	20	Value of goods unsold	8,500	00
"	16		2,800	00			Total returns	16,800	00
		Total cost....	13,600	00					
							$16,800 00		
							13,600 00		
							Profit $3,200 00		

SCHOONER WAVE.

Outlay.					*Returns.*				
1842 Nov.	9		4,000	00	1842 Nov.	14		200	00
"	11		350	00	"	20	Unsold, and valued at	4,300	00
		Total cost....	4,350	00			Total returns	4,500	00

STORE EXPENSES.

Outlay.				
1842 Nov.	13		50	00
"	19		57	00
		Total expenses	107	00

PROFIT AND LOSS.

Losses.					*Gains*				
1842 Nov.	10		35	00	1842 Nov.	15		15	00
							By merchandise.....	3,200	00
"	12		15	00			" schooner Wave.....	150	00
		To store expenses.....	107	00			Total gain.....	3,365	00
		Total loss....	157	00			$3,365		
							157		
							3,208		
							Capital.....8,000		
							Pres. Worth $11,208		

EXPLANATION OF THE LEDGER

The grand business of bookkeeping is to dispose of the matter of the Day-book in the form of accounts, which accounts collectively constitute a Ledger.

The ledger is designed to show the financial position of the owner, either as regards his whole business or its several parts, each part having its own particular account.

Accounts are of two kinds, having two distinct objects; the one kind we denominate *Primary*, the other *Secondary accounts*.

The primary accounts constitute a single-entry Ledger.

The primary and secondary together constitute a double-entry ledger.

So if we had arranged the preceding day-book by single-entry, you would have had none of the secondary accounts in the ledger. Each account in the ledger may occupy a distinct folio; but we have arranged those of the same kind under each other, in order that you may see their analogy: and be careful not to confound the two kinds, for you will soon see that secondary accounts are duplicates of the primary, only the items are not placed in the same order of succession; so if you confound the two together, you may as well make two accounts against one person, and charge him with both.

The *primary accounts* are the *Cash Account, Bills Receivable, Bills Payable*, and the *accounts of individuals*.

All other accounts are *secondary*. This distinction is very easily remembered, therefore let it be carefully noticed.

Now before we proceed to describe the operations in the preceding ledger, let us consider what it is we desire to accomplish.

We have in the day-book a correct history of every transaction that has made the minutest change in the property or financial position of the concern, and we now wish to find out, after all these changes have taken place, what is our present worth.

A very little reflection will enable you to see that this can be accomplished in two different ways:—

1st. If we can find out what are our Resources and what our Liabilities, our present worth must be the difference between the two.

The primary accounts enable us to find out our Resources and Liabilities.

2d. If we can ascertain what we were worth when we commenced, and what we gained since, the sum will be our present worth, or if we lost, their difference.

The secondary accounts enable us to fulfil these latter conditions; and having our present worth derived from two distinct sources, we have presumptive evidence that all is right, and our books are said to balance.

We now proceed to show how we obtained the requisite results by the primary accounts.

In the debit or left hand column of the Cash account, you will find that we have set down every sum of cash received from the beginning. And in the right hand or credit column, we have set down every payment since that time.

We find the whole amount received, to be.....	7,885
And the whole amount paid.....	5,727
Hence we must now have on hand as RESOURCES.....	$2,158

In the debit column of the Bills Receivable account we have entered, as you will find by referring to the respective dates in the day-book, every note we received from the beginning, and in the credit column we have placed every one we disposed of.

The amount of notes we received, is.....	7,300
And the amount disposed of.....	4,000
Consequently we must have on hand as RESOURCES...	$3,300

In the *credit* column of the Bills Payable account we have entered the amount of every note we issued from the beginning, and in the debit column we entered the amount of every one we redeemed or took up.

We find the total amount issued, to be.....	10,050
And the total amount redeemed.....	2,500
Consequently we still have to redeem, which is an item of our LIABILITIES.....	$7,550

In the debit column of John Thompson's account we have entered every sum for which he became accountable to us, and in the credit column every sum for which we became accountable to him.

We find we are now accountable to him.....	4,600
And he is accountable to us.....	4,100
Consequently we owe him, which is another item of our LIABILITIES.....	$0,500
James Brown's account, being arranged on the same principle, shows that he is accountable to us, which is an item of our RESOURCES.....	$1,000

But the primary accounts do not show our whole Resources, unless all our property be sold; now, in this case, we find we have a ship and merchandise, which we set down as Resources according to present valuation.

Here, then, we have shown how you may under any circumstances get at your Resources and Liabilities by making these few accounts according to the above principles. Is there any difficulty to apprehend? Look at each account singly, and see if it is not the plainest way of telling the story that could be devised. Be assured that when the plan of these four accounts is familiar to you, there is no difficulty whatever; but if you attempt to make them before you know how they ought to be made, or for what purpose you are making them, you deserve to be defeated, and that you most undoubtedly will be.

THE LEDGER.

Secondary Accounts.—Having proceeded so far with our subject, without encountering any difficulty to discourage the student, let us examine the remaining part.

The secondary accounts, it will be remembered, were to show what we were worth at the outset, and how much we gained or lost since.

In the credit column of the Stock account you will see that we have recorded what we were worth at the outset.

The remaining secondary accounts are titles we have fixed upon to describe the different portions of our business.

In the debit columns we have put all we laid out under each head, and if we expended any sum for which we had provided no particular head, we entered it under Profit and Loss. Thus we had no head for discount, and we entered it as loss. Hence the secondary accounts are made to show on the debit side all we expended or lost in the business or its parts, and the credit column shows the whole returns of the business or its parts; and after all the transactions have been recorded, we enter, as returns, the valuations of each part unsold, (see Merchandise and Ship;) we then take the gain or loss on each account, separately, and place all gain on the credit side of Profit and Loss, and all losses on the debit side.

Here then we find the total gain.....	3,365
And the total losses.....	0,157
The net gain is therefore.....	3,208
Which added to original capital.....	8,000
Makes our present worth.....	11,208

We have now shown all the accounts that are necessary to enable us to elicit from any transactions a statement of Resources and Liabilities, and also of the Gains, Losses, and Original Capital; hence in assigning debits and credits to the different accounts, that is, in forming a journal, we have only to consider what accounts are affected by a transaction: for example,—"Bought merchandise amounting to $2,000; for which we paid in cash." Required the journal entry.

Now look at the Merchandise account and you will see that the debit side must contain all it cost you, and therefore you will debit Merchandise.

And if you turn to the Cash account you will be reminded of the necessity of entering all payments in the credit column of cash account; hence your entry will be to debit Merchandise and credit Cash.

It would be useless to multiply examples. It is easy to see that you are to be guided entirely in your journal entries by your knowledge of the ledger accounts; and therefore, if you would avoid continued reference, you must, as soon as possible, get the whole plan of the ledger accounts well impressed on your mind. Its outline may be thus briefly stated.

We have shown that all financial transactions whatever, are to be separated into Cash receipts—Cash payments—Other men's notes received—Other men's notes disposed of—Our own notes issued—Our own notes redeemed—What we are indebted to others—What others are indebted to us—Expenditures in the business, or losses—Returns of the business, or Gains. There is a proper place in the ledger provided for each of these classes, and you have only to inform yourself of these places and enter accordingly.

The double entries that you perceive each single transaction requires is only a necessary consequence of your double set of accounts, the debit side of one set being the credit side of the other set: thus what sums you enter in the debit side of the secondary accounts, as expenditures or outlay, you are also required to enter in the credit columns of some of the primary accounts, to show how you made your payments or to whom you are indebted, for you could not make any investment in your business or its parts, but you must either pay cash, give notes, or become indebted to some one; and any of these cases require credits in your primary ac-

counts. And all you enter as returns of the business or its parts, must either be received in cash or notes, or be owing by some one, any of which must be debits of the primary accounts; consequently every thing is recorded twice in double-entry, and you cannot make a debit without being required to enter a corresponding credit.

We now arrive at the most important point in the position we proposed to sustain. We have pointed out certain features as characteristic of, and inseparable from, double-entry, under every form in which it ever has been or can be practised. We also insist that no matter what plan of teaching may be pursued, unless it result in giving all the separate ideas of the several accounts we have adverted to, the subject cannot be understood with sufficient clearness for any practical purpose; which is no more than saying you cannot practise bookkeeping until you understand its principles: for that the features we have adverted to, are the only principles that logically explain the subject, we hold to be indisputable; they have existed in the subject unchanged and unchangeable from its first promulgation; they have constituted the guidance of all who ever mastered double-entry,—they afford the exact picture the subject presents to every experienced practical accountant, with the exception, that he has not been at the pains to arrange his ideas in the logical order that is necessary for elementary instruction. Unfortunately for learners, no attempt has until recently been made to fix their attention on these principles as the ground-work of the study. If we had no written grammars in which language was analyzed, and the several parts of speech defined and carefully urged on the attention of the student, could we reasonably expect to make grammarians by requiring each pupil to take a paragraph and separate the words into different classes for himself? Why then should we expect a student to begin for himself the analysis of transactions in business—to distinguish the several collections that will be required in a ledger, when he is entirely uninformed of any ultimate purpose? We marvel why bookkeeping has been so imperfectly taught; but the true marvel is, that we should have continued so long in the attempt to convey practical knowledge without affording even a glimpse of its elementary principles.

Having defined what constitutes the governing features or principles of the subject, we proceed to give an example of the kind of exercise by which these principles will be most speedily appreciated.

We first lay down the following as the governing rules for the primary accounts, viz.: The Cash Account, Bills Receivable, Bills Payable, and the accounts of persons. (See ledger.)

1st. Debit Cash account with all cash on hand commencing, and subsequent receipts of cash.

2d. Credit Cash account with all payments of cash.

3d. Debit Bills Receivable account with all other men's notes you held commencing, and all subsequently received.

4th. Credit Bills Receivable account with all other men's notes you dispose of.

5th. Credit Bills Payable account with all your own notes outstanding when you commence, and all you subsequently issue.

6th. Debit Bills Payable account with all your own notes you redeem or take up.

7th. Debit each person's account with all he has become indebted to you.

8th. Credit each person's account with all you have become indebted to him.

EXERCISE.

I have extracted from my books of account the following information. My whole receipts of cash, including what I had commencing, amount to $32,280, (see rule 1.) Total amount of other men's Notes received $16,500, (3.) Total amount of my own Notes issued $7,000, (5.) Total amount of Cash paid $13,575, (2.) John Wilson has become indebted $3,000, (7.) Total amount of my own Notes redeemed $2,000, (5.) Total amount of other men's Notes I disposed of $7,500, (4.) I have become indebted to John Wilson $3,500, (8.) William Farmer has become indebted to me $1,000, (8.) Merchandise is all sold. Required my Resources and Liabilities and what I am worth.

The manner of performing the exercise is as follows. Make on a slate or waste paper the necessary headings, thus:—

CASH.

Receipts. ..... Payments.

BILLS RECEIVABLE.

Received. ..... Disposed of.

BILLS PAYABLE.

Redeemed. ..... Issued.

JOHN WILSON.

Dr. ..... Cr.

WILLIAM FARMER.

Dr. ..... Cr.

Enter each item in its proper account on the proper side, according to the rules referred to; thus (2) refers to rule 2.

When all are entered, the following will be the result:—

Resources.		*Liabilities.*	
Cash on hand.....	$18,705	Bills Payable.....	$5,000
Bills Receivable.....	9,000	John Wilson.....	500
W. Farmer owes.....	1,000		$5,500
	$28,705	28,705	
		5,500	
		Present worth.....	$23,205

RULES FOR SECONDARY ACCOUNTS.

1st. Credit Stock account with what you are worth beginning.

2d. Debit the various parts of your business under such titles as you may choose to select, with all you lay out, invest, or lose.

3d. Credit the respective titles with whatever the several departments produce you.

4th. When you expend or receive any sum, for which you have provided no particular account, carry it to Profit and Loss.

5th. In all secondary accounts, expenditures or losses are debits; and receipts or gains, credits.

We have no particular predilection for rhyming rules; indeed, where they are not founded on something already known, we consider them highly objectionable, but as a means of keeping together in the mind the

several principles the student has already seen established, the following may be considered of some utility :—

CASH ACCOUNT.

Debit your Cash Account for cash received,
And credit Cash for ev'ry item paid.

BILLS RECEIVABLE.

When bills, or notes of other men, you take,
To Bills Receivable a debit make;
When of the notes of others you dispose,
Take care that Bills Receivable a credit shows.

BILLS PAYABLE.

For notes you issue promising to pay,
Bills Payable a *credit* must display;
If your own notes you cancel or redeem,
Bills Payable a debit then will claim.

PERSONS' ACCOUNTS.

Debit each person when he takes from you,
And credit items to another due.

SECONDARY ACCOUNTS.

Choose such accounts as best describe your trade,
To debit cost of all investments made;
Expense incurred, or loss, must debit be,
That you your whole expenditure may see.
If at the end, your profits you would know,
Let Merchandise, each sale, a credit show;
All income claims a credit—try to find
The best account to designate its kind.

It will now be evident, that we can give similar exercises to teach the secondary accounts; and thus by about eight or ten exercises, the student is made completely master of all his subsequent operations.

Here, then, after securing to our pupil a complete knowledge of all accounts that can be required, which can be accomplished in three or four days, we are prepared to place him to the journal; and now let us contrast his position with one who is introduced to the journal as his first task :—

Transaction 1st.

Commenced business with a cash capital of.....$10,000 00

Required the journal entries?

Our pupil will see at once the necessity of debiting the Cash account, and crediting the Stock account.

But how is it with one who has no knowledge of the subject? His teacher, perhaps, has made him commit to memory the following lines :—

"By journal laws, what you receive
Is debtor made to what you give;
Stock for your debts must debtor be,
And creditor by property."

But will these lines enable him to make the entry? No, the teacher must tell what the entries are; and if he can by any effort of his ingenuity make the rule apply, even after he has told the entries, we confess he is

more sharp-witted than ourselves. But of what use is a rule, if it can only be made to apply when the entry is known? If you give me some mark, by which I am to know the thing you send me in search of, your description will be useless, if the mark is concealed; your discovering it to me when the difficulty is over, will be of no avail: but so it is with these rules. When the teacher has shown what entries are required, he proceeds by some ingenious argument to make it appear that the rule applies.

Transaction 2d.

"Sold hardware to S. H. Lovell, $250; and for cash to sundry persons, $160."

To this, we will try another rule, which its author pronounces infallible:—

"Whatever owes us is Debtor,
Whatever we owe is Creditor."

This rule is an attempt to make good the very first impression experienced by all who open a book of accounts; for they naturally conceive, that what is called Dr. must be owing to us, and vice versa. But who does not, after a few trials, abandon this idea, from finding his efforts to make sense of it fruitless? In fairness however to the author, we give, in his own words, his application of his rule to the above transaction.

"*Elucidation.*—The Sundries are debtor, because they owe us for the amount of value that the hardware has produced; for *the production consists in Lovell and Cash.*

"Hardware is creditor, because we owe that article for the production it has caused."

How enlightened the student must be by such elucidation! Let us now ask our own student to explain the entries required. His answer will be—

Debit Cash with $160, because we received that amount in cash.
Debit Lovell....$250, because he is indebted for his purchase.

Credit hardware $410, because the whole is returns from hardware.

But how, we would ask, are either of these rules to help the student to a knowledge of the principles which we have already shown to be indispensable to the practice? The student goes on experimenting upon transaction after transaction, patiently trying to apply the rule, and when he finds himself puzzled, he is only taught the more admiration of his teacher's sagacity, when he listens to his ingenious "elucidation;" and without inquiring whether he has gained any general information, he good-naturedly sets down all difficulties to the debit of his own capacity. His very first attempt to penetrate the object of what he is about, causes him to form a wrong impression, and proceed to the very end under the delusion. He says to himself, all things received are Dr., and all things given, Cr.; therefore, when all is compared, the difference must be what I have left. Or, all that owes me is Dr., and all that I owe Cr., and consequently the difference must show how I stand. Great is his perplexity when he discovers at last, that Drs. and Crs.—things received and given—are equal. He is told, that things received are Dr., and yet if he receives a sum of interest or charges, he must credit them. How this would be explained by teachers, we know not; but in most books, the accounts have been prudently omitted.

Now we are not contending, that from instruction such as this, the

student acquires no ideas of bookkeeping; but we contend, that he will be apt in all cases greatly to overrate his acquirements, and that he will have formed such very inadequate ideas of all that regards the details of a counting-room, that it may be questioned whether he will have derived any substantial benefit. It is well known, that attempts to introduce the details of practical bookkeeping into schools, have failed for want of a proper exposition of principles, and the books abandoned. Mr. B. F. Foster published, perhaps, the best exemplification of practical bookkeeping that had then appeared in this country, but what was the result? He explained it as other authors had explained it, and then went on from where they left off to the practice of monthly journalizing; but pupils could not comprehend this stage: they were in fact taken from the school to the counting-room by a change in the details, and found totally incapable of proceeding. Mr. Foster has since altered his whole elementary part to conform to the views here given, which he is now publishing in England.

But in journalizing by such rules, the student only acquires knowledge on the subject in proportion as he happens to remark and form a governing principle by repetition; and this process is slow and tedious. Thus, having journalized many receipts of cash, he at last unconsciously becomes impressed with the principle of debiting Cash with all receipts, but not perhaps until he has first determined that he must debit it when he receives it for merchandise; and next when he receives it on account, and then when he receives it for a note, until at last he shakes off all other circumstances which encumbered the true principle, and he finds he must debit cash whenever he receives it, no matter for what; and so he accumulates a few principles slowly and imperfectly. But to acquire the whole subject in this way, would occupy years instead of weeks. It is so in the counting-room, and must be so in the school, unless the teacher expedite the process of generalization by disclosing the principles that are in reality the object of pursuit.

Hence, the student has no leisure to attend to details, he consumes his whole time in endeavoring to learn the theory of debit and credit by making a journal, without accomplishing even that object. But how is it with the pupil who has learnt the principles? It is true he spends a few days in acquiring the knowledge that is considered the necessary substitute for a rule, but mark the result; he makes his journal entries without any necessity of help from his teacher, he knows what must be done in order to get at his result, and he perfectly understands how each step bears upon it, for in no other case can he proceed. He is supplied with a month's business, and required to bring a balance-sheet; and when he finds he can accomplish this, he gains more confidence for the next; and if the practice be judiciously selected for him by his teacher, he will always succeed. In this way he can accomplish at least five times as much practice, and may be required to adopt every variety of process; for it makes no difference to him, whether he is to make his journal from a day-book alone, or from all the variety of subsidiary books that can be used; so that more than nine-tenths of his time is occupied in real practice, where he is thrown entirely on his previously acquired knowledge, instead of groping along in doubt and difficulty. Instead of balancing once or twice, he will balance at least twenty or thirty times in a few weeks. And all these advantages are gained, by spending a few days in learning the principles, instead of beginning to work by a rule. But what is it we

contend for in teaching this subject? In all books of elementary knowledge in other branches, the first object is to search for those general and self-evident truths or principles that form the basis of the subject, and then to select any exercise by which those principles will be most clearly and frequently brought into operation, until the mind not only appreciates their truth, but becomes so saturated with them that their application is instantly perceived; and in attaining this object, it is of very slight importance whether the operations selected, are such as are commonly wanted in practice or not; it is sufficient if they enable us to insist upon the value and importance of the principles we design to employ in our subject.

If we would place a check upon wild speculation—diminish the number of bankruptcies—afford a timely warning against extravagant expenditure—and throw light into the obscure recesses, where fraud and embezzlement are wont to lurk undetected, we know no better way of beginning, than by urging a complete and effectual reform in this department of commercial education. Nay, not only do we consider the interests of the mercantile community deeply involved in the issue of this movement, we contend further that no youth, for whatever occupation he may be destined, should be considered to have completed even a common or tolerable education, until he can commence his intercourse with the world, provided with that knowledge which is so essential—so indispensable to the protection of his rights; which, in truth, will alone enable him to prove or maintain the distinction of *meum* and *tuum*. The subject is now reduced to a simple arithmetical problem, and we have shown, that to any mass of financial data, how complicated soever it may be, two uniform and simple methods of solution apply, so as to determine the owner's position; and this being once taught, the principles of double-entry are mastered. Is a knowledge of this, less necessary than that of any other part of arithmetic, merely because the sum is longer? In this form the subject is placed as completely under the management of the schoolmaster, as any other branch of knowledge. Let it then, we say, be taught in every common school throughout the Union. The object is not to make every man a bookkeeper, but to make him competent to understand whatever accounts may come under his notice, and to detect and expose erroneous results, however ingeniously they may have been drawn.

It is not disputed, that however well the principles of bookkeeping may be taught, each student in applying it to practice, will exhibit some peculiarity in the disposition of the details; some will choose one set of subsidiary books and some another: but if two men were to write on the same subject with the same sentiments, would they not construct their sentences differently; and should we not consider this very difference as the surest evidence we could have of originality? Both may write grammatically, yet one may greatly excel the other; but because each has a way of his own, this can surely be no argument that the study of grammar is useless.

What we would insist upon then, as regards accounts, is, that every one should be competent, at least to state his financial affairs correctly, and as regards the minor details of practice, those who are ambitious of attaining perfection, will find ample latitude for the exercise of their ingenuity, and much to be gathered from the experience of others.*

* Our readers are referred for a full development of this system of teaching the subject, to "Jones's Principles and Practice of Bookkeeping."

ART. III.—PREFERRING CREDITORS IN ASSIGNMENT—ITS MORALITY.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine.

SINCE the passage of the late Bankrupt Law, this cannot be a subject of much concern to those who may be made the involuntary subject of it, as an assignment would be an act of bankruptcy which would authorize a commission to be issued, and vacate the deed; but there is a large class of debtors who may avail themselves of its benefits at their own option, or give preferences to particular creditors, by assignment, in the same manner as before the passage of the act. To this latter class, the moral propriety of giving such preferences, is a question of no inconsiderable importance, and ought to be rightly understood. Upon this subject we cannot coincide in the views expressed in the tenth article of the September number of the Magazine; but on the contrary, believe those views, as broadly as laid down, cannot be supported by sound reasoning, or on strict principles of morality. The custom of giving preferences to a particular class of creditors has prevailed so long, and is so generally known, that it must be presumed that the creditor, no matter what may be the character of the debt contracted, naturally expects from the uniform usage upon the subject, that in the event of the debtor's failure, his claim will share the same fate that those of a similar character have invariably met under similar circumstances. If both the parties are merchants, the one who sells the other goods upon credit, has every reason to believe at the time the contract is made, that if the debtor from any cause whatever should become unable to meet *all* his engagements, and should owe what the mercantile world knows by the name of "confidential debts," those debts will be preferred to his, and be only placed upon an equality with other creditors holding claims of a similar nature to his own. This is an implied understanding between the parties, as much as any other custom regulating the intercourse of merchants, which is not expressed at the time; and any custom or particular state of things in reference to which parties contract, are obligatory in conscience, and in most cases in law. If then there is a tacit understanding between them, such as we have mentioned, it is difficult for the acutest moral perception to discover any moral impropriety in the debtor's doing what the law does not prohibit, but on the contrary recognises and enforces; and what it was expected by the excluded creditor he would do when overtaken by misfortune or embarrassment. The individual, also, who lends his money or his name to facilitate the business and prosperity of another, does so in the confidence, predicated upon almost invariable usage, that the party obtaining assistance in that manner, when overtaken by pecuniary distresses, will not permit him to suffer; and the breach of this implied confidence by placing all creditors upon an equality, it seems to us would indicate much more of moral turpitude in the debtor, than if he were to give the preference denounced in the article referred to. Besides this, the individual who sells property to another on credit, seldom does it from any principle of benevolence or feeling of kindness towards the purchaser, but generally almost solely for the profit or other advantage he expects to derive from the transaction; but he who lends his money or his name, generally does it without any prospect of advantage to himself, and with motives entirely disinterested. Now if a mere security, who has become so without any consideration, and with no other motive than to do the principal a kind-

ness, is required to be placed upon the same footing with the creditor, who has become one for the profit he gains or expected to gain by the contract, the disinterested security would be really a greater loser, than the creditor who sold the property, perhaps at a large profit on the amount of money laid out for it. For instance, a merchant sells another goods to the amount of a thousand dollars, which cost him in money eight hundred; a security is liable for the same individual, for a thousand dollars: the debtor fails, and assigns his effects for the equal benefit of the two creditors, from which each of them realizes fifty cents on the dollar; in such a case it seems evident that the merchant really loses but three hundred dollars of his debt, while the security loses five hundred. Now it seems to us that in morals it would be manifestly unjust to place these two creditors upon an equality under such circumstances, to say nothing of the different feelings that actuated them in the manner of becoming creditors. If the motives which actuate men in their dealings with one another, are to be taken into consideration, (and nothing is better settled in morals than that they should be,) it will appear that there is an obligation of a very high character resting upon the principal debtor, to save harmless those who have generously lent him the use of their names to promote his prosperity without any consideration moving towards themselves. Acts of disinterestedness call upon the individual who receives the benefit of them, for the exercise of proper feelings of gratitude, and proper acts also, whenever occasions are presented for their manifestation; and he who under any circumstances permits a friend who has become a security for him, to be a sufferer by his generosity, as long as he has the means of preventing it, is certainly esteemed in all enlightened communities as a very ungrateful being;—and ingratitude, among all nations, has been considered the blackest of crimes. Indeed, a security is so much favored, even in respect to his liability to the creditors of his principal, that a court of chancery, which is peculiarly a court of conscience, will not revive his liability if he is exonerated at law. The argument that a security, or he who lends money to the debtor, should be no more favored than other creditors, nor so much, because they thus enable the debtor to keep up a fictitious credit, which, in the end, will prove more injurious to creditors generally than if those means are withheld, cannot be supported. There is more of plausibility than of soundness in the position, for it assumes that the lender and security have greater knowledge of the debtor's affairs than other creditors, which is not often the case. Without this assumption it is difficult to perceive but what other creditors are in *pari-delicto* with the lender and security, in respect to that matter; for if they are all equally ignorant of the debtor's real condition, the merchant sustains his credit (how little soever it may be deserved) as much by selling him goods upon credit, as the lender by the use of his money, or the security by the use of his name. Indeed the very fact, that the debtor can buy as much property as he pleases upon credit, is oftener the inducement for others to lend their names and money than the reverse. Upon the whole, it seems to us there is nothing immoral in a debtor's preferring one creditor over another under peculiar circumstances, but on the contrary to neglect to do so would be the more unconscientious course: the sufficiency of those circumstances must be a matter resting in his own conscience, and it is therefore difficult to lay down a general rule by which he should be governed. If he considers properly the circumstances under which par-

ticular debts have been contracted, the necessitous condition of some of his creditors, who would be reduced to poverty and want by his neglecting to provide for them, while others would but slightly be injured, he will not go very far wrong, though he cannot escape the censure of all; for the unfortunate debtor who is unable to pay all he owes, cannot possibly give satisfaction to all his creditors, whatever course he may pursue. If all are placed upon an equality with respect to the division of his estate, those whose claims stand upon higher grounds than others, will clamor against his ingratitude. If they are preferred, those who are not so highly favored, will be equally loud in denouncing his injustice; so that whatever disposition of his effects he may make that does not satisfy all, he must inevitably be subjected to the animadversion of some. Since then he cannot gratify the wishes of all, but must be reprobated by some, his only course is to act from the dictates of an enlightened conscience, and the suggestions of his better feelings, and thereby, at least, secure the approbation of his own heart.

Gainesville, Ala., Oct. 18, 1842.

Art. IV.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES, IN FIFTY YEARS.

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER VII.

THE AGGREGATE INCREASE OF THE POPULATION IN FIFTY YEARS, AND OF THE DIFFERENT RACES WHICH COMPOSE IT.

Having exhibited in succession the six enumerations which have been taken of the population of the United States, and noticed the more striking and important facts to be inferred from each, it will now be our purpose to examine them in the aggregate, together with such general results as may be deduced from them.

We therefore propose to take a comparative view of the progress of population during the half century that has elapsed since the first census was taken, in the several states and territories, in the larger geographical divisions, and in the different races and classes;

To investigate the subject of the proportion between the sexes, and inquire into the causes of the diversities among different classes, and of the variations in the same class;

To compare the sexes and the different races as to longevity; and the maladies of deafness and blindness;

To inquire into the natural increase, in the United States generally, in the old and the new states, and of the different races; the past and future influence; and the future progress of population;

To inquire into the future progress of domestic slavery, and some of its remote effects;

To consider the progress of political power, so far as it depends upon numbers;

And lastly, we shall estimate the annual income of the several states, and of the Union, from all sources, and inquire into the past and future progress of the national wealth.

By the following table we may compare—

The Population of each State and Territory, as exhibited by six enumerations in years, with its Decennial Rate of Increase during the same period.

	POPULATION.						DECENNIAL INCREASE				
	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	18
Maine,....	96,540	151,719	228,705	298,335	399,455	501,793	57.1	50.7	30.4	34.	25
N. Hamps.	141,899	183,762	214,360	244,161	269,328	284,574	29.5	16.6	13.8	10.3	5
Vermont,.	85,416	154,465	217,713	235,764	280,652	291,948	80.6	41.	8.2	19.	4
Mässach's.	378,717	422,245	472,040	523,287	610,408	737,699	11.6	11.6	10.9	16.6	20
Rhode I'd.	69,110	69,122	77,031	83,059	97,199	108,830	0.4	11.2	8.	17.	12
Connectic.	238,141	251,002	262,042	275,202	297,675	309,978	5.4	4.3	5.1	8.1	3.
	1,009,823	1,233,315	1,471,891	1,659,808	1,954,717	2,234,822	21.1	19.3	12.8	17.8	14
N. York,..	340,120	586,756	959,049	1,372,812	1,918,608	2,428,921	72.3	63.6	43.1	39.7	92.
N. Jersey,.	184,139	211,949	245,555	277,575	320,823	373,306	14.6	16.3	13.	15.5	16.
Pennsylv'.	434 373	602,365	810,091	1,049,458	1,348,233	1,724,033	38.6	34.4	29.5	28.5	27.
Delaware,	59,096	64,273	72,674	72,749	76,748	78,085	8.7	13.	0.1	5.5	1.
Maryland,	319,728	341,548	380,546	407,350	447,040	470,019	9.3	8.8	7.	9.7	5.
Dis. of Col.	.....	14,093	24,023	33,039	39,834	43,712	.....	61.1	37.7	20.5	9.
	1,337,456	1,890,984	2,491,938	3,212,983	4,151,286	5,118,076	36.2	36.8	28.9	29.2	23.
Virginia,..	748,308	880,200	974,622	1,065,379	1,211,405	1,239,797	18.5	9.9	9.3	13.7	2.
N. Carolin.	393,751	478,103	555,500	638,829	737,987	753,419	21.3	16.2	15.3	15.5	2.
S. Carolin.	249,073	345,591	415,115	502,741	581,185	594,398	38.7	20.1	18.1	15.6	2.
Georgia,...	82,548	162,110	252,433	340,987	516,823	691,392	79.	55.1	35.1	51.6	33.
Florida ...	.....	.....	.....	.....	34,730	54,477	.....	.....	.....	.....	47.
	1,473,680	1,865,995	2,197,670	2,547,936	3,082,130	3,333,483	26.6	17.8	15.9	21.	8.
Alabama,	.....	.....	.....	144,317	309,527	590,756	.....	.....	.....	142.	90.
Mississipp.	.....	8,850	40,352	75,448	136,621	375,651	.....	35.6	87.	81.	175.
Louisiana,	.....	.....	76,556	153,407	215,739	352,411	.....	.....	100.4	40.6	61.
Arkansas,	.....	.....	.....	14,273	30,388	97,574	.....	.....	.....	112.8	221.
Tennessee,	35,791	105,602	261,727	422,813	681,904	829,210	200.	47.8	61.5	61.3	21.
	35,791	114,452	378,635	810,258	1,374,179	2,245,602	219.8	230.8	114.	69.6	63.
Missouri,..	.....	.....	20,845	66,586	140,455	383,702	.....	.....	219.5	109.9	173.
Kentucky,	73,077	220,955	406,511	564,317	687,917	779,828	200.	83.9	38.8	21.9	13.
Ohio,.....	.....	45,365	230,760	581,434	937,903	1,519,467	.....	408.7	151.9	61.3	62.
Indiana,..	.....	4,875	24,520	147.178	343,031	685,866	.....	402.9	500.2	133.	99.9
Illinois,...	.....	.....	12,282	55,211	157,445	476,183	.....	.....	349.5	185.1	202.4
Michigan,.	.....	.....	4,762	8,896	31,639	212,267	.....	.....	86.1	255.6	555.6
Wisconsin	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30,945	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Iowa,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	43,112	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
	73,077	271,195	699,680	1,423,622	2,298,390	4,131,370	271.1	158.	104.4	61.5	79.7
	3,929,827	5,305,925	7,239,814	9,638,131	12,866,020	17,069,453	35.02	36.45	33.35	33.26	32.67

As the states and territories naturally arrange themselves into five divisions, which are separated not only by their geographical position, but also, with few exceptions in their modes of industry and commercial interests, it is thought proper to compare the progress of population in these divisions; as may be seen in the following table:—

DIVISIONS.	INCREASED POPULATION FROM AUGUST 1, 1790, IN				
	10 *years.*	20 *years.*	30 *years.*	40 * *years.*	50 * *years.*
1. The NEW ENGLAND STATES,.....	122.4	145.8	164.4	193.6	221.3
2. The MIDDLE STATES, with *D. of Col.*	136.2	186.3	240.2	310.4	382.7
3. The SOUTHERN STATES, with the Territory of *Florida*,.....	126.6	149.1	172.9	209.1	226.1
4. The SOUTHWESTERN STATES,.....	319.8	1,058.	2,264.	3,839.	6,174.
5. The NORTHWEST'N STATES, with the Territories of *Wisconsin* and *Iowa*,.....	371.6	857.5	1,948.	3,145.	5,654.
Total of the UNITED STATES,.....	135.	184 2	245.3	327.4	434.5

* It will be recollected that by the change of the day of taking the census from the 1st of August to the 1st of June, the periods referred to in the two last columns want two months of the terms mentioned.

very great disparity exhibited by the preceding table between the f increase in the three first divisions, which comprise the thirteen l states, and that of the two western divisions, is to be referred entirely to migration, the Atlantic states losing yet more than in by emigrants, whilst the western states gain largely and steadily m foreign and domestic emigration. There is, moreover, probably l difference in their natural increase, which will be investigated in quent part of this memoir.

distribution of the population into the three classes of whites, free s of color, and slaves, at each census; with the decennial increase class, are presented in the following table:—

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	DECENNIAL INCREASE PER CENT IN				
							1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.
	3,172,464	4,304,489	5,862,004	7,872,711	10,537,373	14,189,555	35.7	36.2	34.3	33.8	34.7
	59,466	108,395	186,446	238,197	319,599	386,348	82.3	72.2	27.7	34.2	20.9
	697,897	893,041	1,191,364	1,543,688	2,009,043	2,487,355	27.9	83.4	29.6	30.1	23.8
	3,231,930	4,412,884	6,048,450	8,110,908	10,856,972	14,575,903	36.4	37.	34.1	33.7	34.1
	757,363	1,001,436	1,377,810	1,781,885	2,328,642	2,873,703	32.2	37.6	29.3	30.6	23.4

total increase of the three classes in fifty years, has been,

			of whites,.... as 100 to	447.3
"	"	"	of free colored	649.7
"	"	"	of slaves	356.4
"	"	"	of the whole colored....	379.4

e relative proportions of the three classes, at each census, is as fol-:—

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.
.....	80.7	81.1	81.	81.5	81.9	83.1
olored,.....	1.5	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.3
.....	17.8	16.8	16.4	16.	15.6	14.6

pears, from the preceding comparison, that in half a century, the have gained, and the colored persons have lost 2.4 per cent of the population; and that the free persons have gained, and the slaves st 3.2 per cent.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE PROPORTION BETWEEN THE SEXES.

eems to be a general law of the human species, that the number les born exceeds that of females in a small proportion; and a dis- continues through the subsequent periods of life, until we reach age when the greater casualties to which males are exposed, have counterbalanced the original excess. Is this an ultimate fact which we must refer to a final cause, or is its proximate cause the greater strength and vigor of the male sex, by reason of which fewer of that sex are still-born, or perish by abortion, or other casualties before birth?

The numbers of the two sexes, and the proportion between, as exhibited by each census, were as follows:—

	1790.		1800.		1810.		1820.		1830.		1840.	
WHITES,		AS		AS		AS		AS		AS		AS
Males,.....	1,615,925	100.	2,904,421	100.	2,987,571	100.	4,001,064	100.	5,355,133	100.	7,249,286	100.
		TO		TO		TO		TO		TO		TO
Females,...	1,556,839	96.3	2,100,068	95.3	2,874,433	96.2	3,871,647	96.8	5,171,115	96.6	6,940,161	95.7
FREE COL.												
Males,.....	No discrimination of the sexes in the colored population at these enumerations.						112,734		153,453		188,467	
Females,...							125,463	111.3	166,146	108.3	190,778	107.1
SLAVES,												
Males,.....							788,036		1,012,323		1,246,517	
Females,...							755,660	95.9	996,299	98.4	1,240,988	99.5

It appears, by the preceding table, that while both in the white and the slave population, the males always exceed the females, commonly between three and four per cent; in the free colored portion, the females exceed the males from seven to eleven per cent. This diversity is to be ascribed principally to the roving habits of the men of this class, many of whom take to a seafaring life, and some travel and even settle abroad. Perhaps, too, there are in some of the states a greater proportion of females emancipated. The census furnishes us with no data for verifying this conjecture, as the excess of females is by far the greatest at that period of life when either cause would be most operative; that is, between the ages of ten and thirty-six. By the fifth census, the males of this class between ten and twenty-four, were 43,079, and females 47,329; and of those between twenty-four and thirty-six, the males were 27,650, and the females 32,541. In like manner, by the sixth census, the males between ten and twenty-four were 52,805, and the females 56,592; and between twenty-four and thirty-six, the males were 35,321, and the females 41,682; so that of the whole excess of females by the fifth census, amounting to 12,693, nearly three-fourths (9,141) were between the ages of ten and thirty-six; and of the excess by the sixth census, 13,341 more than three-fourths (10,148) were between the same ages. Nor can any argument against the supposed greater emancipation of females be drawn from the fact, that there is no correspondent deficiency of female slaves, between the ages of ten and thirty-six, since such emancipation may be counterbalanced, and more than counterbalanced, by the runaway slaves, who are mostly males.

It will be also perceived, that there was, both in 1830 and 1840, a greater preponderance of males on the part of the whites than of the slaves, owing partly to the excess of males, of the white emigrants from Europe, and partly to the diminution of male slaves by running away.

Of the whites, the excess of males was the greatest in 1800; being to the females as 100 to 95.3. This was probably owing to the great number of French emigrants who thronged to the United States about the close of the last century. A similar flow of emigrants from Europe, between 1830 and 1840, has caused the like excess of white males, that is shown by the last census.

To find the comparison between the sexes, from the influence of immigration, as far as practicable, let us take the males and females under ten years of age. Their numbers were first taken in 1800:—

By the second census the white males were to the females as 100 to 93.6
By the third census " " " " " 94.8
By the fourth census " " " " " 95.2
By the fifth census " " " " " 95.3
By the sixth census " " " " " 95.4

By this it appears, that there has been a steady increase in the proportion of females during the last forty years. But the greater disproportion between the sexes, which is shown by the two first enumerations, than that which appears in the three last, seems to require explanation. Perhaps it is to be found in the interruption given to navigation from 1806 to 1815, by which the number of boys formerly going to sea, or on board fishing vessels and coasters being diminished, augmented the proportion of males.

Let us now compare the proportion of males to females in the different races, which we can do only under the two last enumerations:—

	In 1830.	*In* 1840.
The white males under ten, were to the females as 100 to	95.3	95.4
The free colored males " " "	97.2	97.4
The slaves " " " " "	98.4	99.7

For the greater excess of males at this early age, in the white population, than in the colored race, I am able to assign no reason, unless it be that there is a disproportion of boys, as well as men, among the European emigrants, or that slave boys, near the age of ten, being put to work out of doors, are more exposed than girls to accidents and diseases, whereby their original excess is more diminished than with the whites.

But why is it, that the proportional excess of males in all the classes, has been progressively diminishing? If we suppose that the excess of boys over girls, among the emigrants from Europe, is gradually decreasing in its relative influence, that would apply only to the whites. I leave the difficulty as to the colored race unsolved. The only solution that occurs to me, as applicable to both races is, that those occupations by which the lives and health of boys are more exposed than are those of girls, have been slightly but gradually increasing; and it may be remarked, that the excess of males under ten is less, in the New England states, which are most maritime, than in the southern and western states, which are least so.

It deserves notice, that in the slave population, although the females, between fourteen and twenty-six, in the fourth census, approach to or exceed the males, yet after twenty-four, the preponderance of the males is restored. In the fifth census, too, of the slaves between twenty-four and thirty-six, the females slightly exceed the males, but both with all those at both the earlier and later periods of life, the males exceed the females; from which it would appear, that the diversity in their respective employments, which takes place in the vigor of manhood, abridges life with males more than with females; but that in subsequent periods, the chance of life is in favor of the male sex. According to the sixth census, the two sexes approach to equality in the slaves between ten and twenty-four, but at all other ages the males exceed the females.

"Honesty *is* the best policy;" and aside from the consideration of a solemn reckoning hereafter, it is the surest way to worldly thrift and prosperity. But to honesty there must be added a great degree of caution and prudence. Many a young man has been led by the consciousness of his own integrity to place such confidence in mankind as to render him an easy prey to knaves and swindlers.

Art. V.—LAW REFORM.

REFORMS REQUISITE IN PLEADING.

People of a barbarous and ignorant age, are incapable of making laws suitable for an intelligent and civilized community. Unlettered peasants would legislate but poorly for a community of merchants; and men whose chief occupation is war and the chase, can but inadequately comprehend the necessities of those pursuing the avocations of peaceful industry. The transactions of people strictly agricultural are few and simple, requiring for their regulation not many laws, and those of a plain nature and easy of interpretation; while on the contrary, the dealings of those engaged in commerce, are of vast variety and extent, subject to continual change, and involving every possible form of interest; demanding for their control laws capable of comprehending a multitude of exigencies, and of settling controversies of as great diversity as the form of their business assumes.

The circumstances of different people inhabiting distant portions of the earth are, owing to the effects of soil and climate, and the consequent difference in habits and trade, so dissimilar, that it would be scarcely possible, even for a highly civilized nation to frame a code of laws suitable in all respects for the regulation of another and remote people. Laws are properly the result of necessity, as indicated by experience; and no community should have more than its own peculiar circumstances require, and those should be only such as will effect their object in the easiest and most efficient manner.

A nation poor and of simple pursuits requires, and is certainly capable of framing, but simple laws; but as it progresses in affluence and civilization, frequent changes in the laws become necessary in order to adapt them to the changed habits, diversified pursuits, and more advanced state of the people. For these reasons, numerous and important modifications have proved necessary, in order to render the English common law conformable to our habits and more just principles. It had its origin in an unenlightened age, when commerce was scarcely known, the arts uncultivated, and human rights unheeded. It was founded on the theory of the superiority of the few, and the degradation of the many; while we hold it to be a self-evident truth, that all citizens have an equality of rights. It was framed subservient to aristocratic and tyrannical political institutions, which regarded labor as dishonorable and man as a slave. It is true, that it contained some features which experience has proved to be of utility in our day. These it would be unwise in us to reject. Still, as a system, it was contracted and oppressive; and though it was transmitted to us mitigated and improved by the more liberal legislation and judicial refinements of succeeding generations, yet we received it full of imperfections and deficiencies—containing provisions made to meet usages long since obsolete in that country, and never known in this; while it was altogether silent in relation to many topics, concerning which our peculiar circumstances required that it should speak out.

Our legislatures have made frequent efforts to shake off some of these errors, and to supply what was deficient; yet, overcome by the great bugbear, dread of change, they have left our civil code cumbered with many antiquated provisions entirely unsuited to our principles and advanced civilization.

It may also be remarked, that in a community possessing a great and diversified commerce—composed of people who push their enterprise into every possible sphere, even the laws of their own creating, to meet the vast variety of cases that will arise, and the changes which time effects in their trade and habits, must necessarily become voluminous, intricate, and frequently, from the imperfections of all human tribunals, conflicting.

In short, as long as man is in a progressive state, the laws must be imperfect and liable to change. They must meliorate as he advances. They never can become stationary until he is so. Should man become a perfect intelligence, human laws for his government will not then be requisite, for he will be a law unto himself.

Considerations such as these, clearly indicate the necessity of frequent modifications of our laws. And as, under our institutions, it is the duty of the people themselves to produce the reforms requisite, we intend to discuss, from time to time, those features in our legal system liable to objection. It is not, however, our intention at present to investigate the improvements necessary in the declaratory or directory portions of the law. Reserving these for subsequent consideration, we shall endeavor first, to examine in detail some of the imperfections in REMEDIAL LAW, or PRACTICE—which relates to the *mode* in which legal redress must be sought.

And it may be here premised, that it is not sufficient that laws are just and adequate in themselves, unless their justice and adequacy are so speedily available, in all possible cases, as to prevent any detriment by delay. Indeed, bad laws are scarcely worse than dilatory remedies. What matter is it to the suitor, whether he is ruined by the iniquity of the statute, or the procrastination of the court? The result to him is the same, and it is but wretched satisfaction that the judgment is ultimately in his favor, when the amount recovered is exhausted in fees to counsel, and the other expenses consequent upon protracted litigation.

One of the chief sources of difficulty in our practice, arises from the present method of PLEADING, as it is technically termed. It means the manner in which the grounds of action must be alleged, and the legal defence stated. Pleadings comprise the *declaration* of the plaintiff, the *plea* of the defendant, and also *replications*, *rejoinders*, *surrejoinders*, *rebutters*, *surrebutters*, and *demurrers*. The object of the pleadings may be gathered from the remarks of some of our most popular elementary writers.

"Pleadings," says Blackstone, "are the mutual altercations between the plaintiff and defendant."

"The office of the declaration," says Graham, "is to spread upon the record the nature of the plaintiff's claim, and to apprise the defendant of the ground of the action, in such a manner *as to enable him fully to meet them*, either in pleading, or by evidence on the trial."

"Pleading," says Chitty, "is the statement in a logical and legal form of *the facts* which constitute the plaintiff's cause of action, or the defendant's ground of defence; it is the formal mode of alleging *that* on the record, which would be the support, or the defence, of the party *in evidence*. It is, as observed by Mr. Justice Buller, 'one of the first principles of pleading, that there is only occasion to state *facts*, which must be done for the purpose of *informing the court*, whose duty it is to declare the *law* arising upon *those facts*, and of *apprising the opposite party of what is*

the defendant. And the consequence is not unfrequently that he is taken by surprise, and defeated in a just claim, when if he had received previous intimation of the intended defence, he might have prepared suitably to meet it, and perhaps have rebutted the positions assumed by his adversary to prevent his recovery.

It is true that if he is able to convince the court that he has been defeated through surprise, it will grant him a new trial; but what a mockery is presented here! What a confession of the imperfection of the rules for pleading! First a system is devised which permits of surprise, and then a precedent established which relieves against surprise! Can any thing be more preposterous in reason, or more vexatious in practice? Yet these are not its worst features—for the delay consequent upon an application to the court not unfrequently renders the judgment valueless when obtained, as it affords dishonest defendants an opportunity to exhaust their property, or to dispose of it so as to be beyond the reach of execution. The system is thus not only useless, expensive, and harassing, but of a directly immoral tendency. And how easily these consequences might be obviated! Abolish the rule, and you destroy all occasion for relief. Require the parties to tell each other and the court the truth, and nothing else—let the plaintiff set forth his real ground of action in the declaration and the defendant plead his actual defence, and confine both, upon the trial, to the proof of their respective statements, and a host of these needless difficulties would at once be lopped off.

But lest we shall be accused of bringing an isolated action in condemnation of an entire system, we will instance a few other forms in illustration; and first, one of the most simple of them all—trover.

Let us suppose several varied grounds of action; as

1. That the plaintiff had lost his watch, which the defendant has found and converted to his own use; or

2. That the defendant has obtained it from the plaintiff under false pretences; or

3. That it has been deposited with the defendant to be delivered to the plaintiff; or

4. That the defendant, a sheriff, has taken it wrongfully under process of law; or

5. That the plaintiff had loaned it to the defendant.

In each of these cases let us suppose, that the defendant refuses, under any pretext, to deliver the watch to the plaintiff. Now, in pleading, the plaintiff would set forth his grievance in each variety of these circumstances, in precisely the same words, as follows:—

"That whereas the said plaintiff heretofore, to wit, on —— day of—— at the city of New York, was lawfully possessed, as of his own property, of a certain watch, of great value, to wit, of the value of one hundred dollars. And being so possessed thereof, the said plaintiff, afterwards, to wit, on the day and year first abovementioned, casually *lost* the said watch out of his possession; and the same, afterwards, to wit, on the —— day of —— at the said city, came to the possession of the said defendant by *finding*. Yet the said defendant, well-knowing the said watch to be the property of the said plaintiff, and of right to belong and appertain to him, but contriving, and fraudulently intending craftily and subtilely to deceive and defraud the said plaintiff in this behalf, hath not as yet delivered the said watch to the said plaintiff, although often requested so to do,

and hath hitherto wholly refused so to do, and afterwards, to wit, on the —— day of —— at —— converted and disposed of the said watch, to his own use; to the damage of," &c.

Mark the fiction—"the plaintiff lost his watch." He did no such thing, except in *one* of the instances. Then why not conform the statement of the case to the fact? Why should the truth be stated in one instance and not in the others? What is the benefit of resorting to fiction—to falsehood—for it is nothing more? Is it more difficult to state the truth in one case than in another; or would it be less easily comprehended? We deem not.

To this declaration the defendant answers, "that he is not guilty of the supposed grievances laid to his charge," and under this vague and indefinite plea, he may prove almost any thing he chooses to bar a recovery, and without giving the plaintiff any other notice of his purpose.

But the evil does not stop here—for as several defences may be set up under one plea, so, as we remarked, several pleas may be put in the same count. As, for instance, in the action of debt, upon a common money bond, say for $1,000. To the declaration the defendant may plead these several and inconsistent defences, leaving the plaintiff to conjecture which he will endeavor to substantiate by proof, upon the trial:—

1. *Non est factum.* That he did not execute the bond.
2. *Solvit ad diem.* That he paid it the day it became due.
3. *Solvit post diem.* That he paid it after it became due.
4. Accord and satisfaction.
5. That the obligee released the debt.
6. That he has obtained a discharge under the insolvent laws.

As bonds generally have many years to run, and frequently pass into the hands of executors, assignees, and other remote parties, it is a subject of great perplexity to them, when bringing suit upon them, to have these several matters pleaded, or any number of them; as it is usually extremely difficult, after the death or removal of the principal, to discover the nature of the transactions between the original parties. This mode of pleading, consequently, operates rather harder upon them than upon other parties, and there is greater necessity for reformation in this particular than in many other instances.

Such, in some of its features, is our system of pleading. "Folly" is graven so legibly on its face, that he who runs may read. We believe, that it has been the occasion of nearly as much wrong, as has arisen from errors in the laws themselves; for the latter can be known and guarded against, but the forms of pleading are written in a tongue unknown, except to the few initiated, and their existence is scarcely ever imagined until their penalties are incurred. It may do, perhaps, for that peculiar class of the profession which believes implicitly in the maxim, "*quod scriptum est justum*"—that a thing is right because it is in the statute, to extol pleadings for the beauty of their logic, and for their metaphysical refinements; but in practice, the present system is worse than useless—for it is often the instrument of direct and palpable wrong. How many suitors have failed in obtaining their rights, the merits of whose causes were beyond dispute, from the inadvertence of their attorney, or his want of skill in special pleading! How often has justice been denied, when the evidence presented full grounds for a recovery, merely because the declaration did not contain, perhaps, a few words of form, which could not

have added to, or varied the proof of a single fact in controversy! "But," exclaim its admirers, "it is so complete and beautiful a system—so subtle —so logical!" We demand in answer, "*Cui bono?*" What litigant is benefited by it? Not the party in the right certainly, for his cause needs no adventitious aid. It can maintain itself. Consequently the subtleties of pleading can only benefit the wrong-doer. And so experience proves it does. It is his ally—his shield, by which he wards off the just consequences of his wrong. And so well understood is this fact, that we may witness daily bad men endeavoring to resist valid demands by the tricks and subtleties of pleading. And further, no man goes to law to learn logic, or to become versed in double-refined subtleties. People desire results more substantial than these. Their causes are generally plain, and should be brought before the court in the clearest and most intelligible form. As few forms and ceremonies as possible should be allowed to intervene between them and the attainment of justice.

We did intend to say something more definitely as to *special* pleadings, but though we have approached, we dread to pass beyond the threshold of its obscure and awful mysteries. For, should we once enter within its precincts, we much fear that it would be our lot so to grope about "in wandering mazes lost," that it would be long ere we should again emerge to the light of day. And as to our readers, we never could hope to lead them through the worse than Cretan labyrinth, with the least recollection of its ever devious passages.

We have thus endeavored to present our subject in familiar language, (a matter of no little difficulty when treating of a technical subject,) plainly and honestly. And we submit it to our intelligent readers whether the system of pleading, as it now exists, is not an absurdity too gross and palpable to be worthy the longer sanction of a community aspiring to the distinction of possessing an enlightened jurisprudence. Surely—surely, it is. That it has been tolerated so long, habituated as we are to scanning the errors of existing institutions, and so practised in the work of reformation, can alone be attributed to the mystery which clouds the subject from the observation of all except professional men, and to the apathy to existing abuses, and the almost instinctive dread of change among many of the best informed in every community. But a worthier and more resolute spirit is now prevailing, which can bear to look abuses in the face and lay hold of them with a manly arm, before which must ultimately fall this and all else that is useless or oppressive to society.

As to a substitute for the present mode of pleading, one may be devised with far less difficulty than many are willing to admit. "Conform to the truth," is a precept which experience would prove as wise in pleading as in all other affairs. All that seems requisite to bring a controversy properly before the court for trial and adjudication is that a precept be issued in behalf of the plaintiff, summoning the defendant to appear in court. This should set forth in clear and concise terms the cause of action as it *really* exists. If the action is founded on a note, bond, or other instrument in writing, a notice briefly setting forth its substance should be served on the defendant at the same time with the summons. Within a certain number of days after the service, the defendant should give notice to the plaintiff, or his attorney, of his actual defence, or else be liable to have judgment taken against him by default. On the issue thus presented, let the parties go to trial. The cause would then be unencum-

bered with the vexations and subtleties of pleading, and might be determined exclusively upon its own intrinsic merits, and there would be every reason to expect a judgment in accordance with the justice of the case.

Nor would this prevent either party from taking proper advantage of any principle of law in his favor which involved the merits of the cause in controversy. For should the plaintiff produce but inadequate proof, and the jury render him a verdict—or should the judge err in deciding any principle of law applicable to the case, or in his charge—or should there occur any other reason for the interference of the court, the injured party would still possess the same remedy—by motion for a new trial—in arrest of judgment, &c., as at present exists. Or should the plaintiff state a legally inadequate cause of action, or the defendent set up an illegal or insufficient defence, either would still have all the advantage of demurrer—not, it is true, on account of form, but substance—and might also bring his cause immediately before the court on the admitted facts for adjudication. In short, should either party suffer wrong in the eye of the law, in any manner, the means for rectifying the errors would be just as ample as they are now,—and with this advantage, that the circumstances would be considered unconnected with matters purely technical, and of no importance, and determined exclusively on the ground of legal principles applicable to the facts of the case.

This result is of the gravest importance, and if realized, would not alone be a triumph of right, but a vindication of our tribunals from those unseemly imputations of which they are the almost constant object, and would render them still more worthy of the confidence and veneration of an enlightened people.

It is a singular fact, that while we have clung with persevering tenacity to many of the worst features and grossest absurdities of the ancient common law, we have failed to adopt its mode of pleadings, which was among the very best of its provisions. It was good, because extremely simple. The parties appeared in open court—the plaintiff declared, orally, his cause of action as it really existed; and the defendant pleaded his specific defence. Then each party was informed of the intentions of the other, and had an opportunity of preparing to meet them, and the court was advised of the precise nature of the cause it was called upon to try. Under such a system, there was nothing to thwart justice or to arrest the punishment justly due the wrong-doer. We would have this system restored. Modify it, if need be, to greater conformity to the requirements of a more trafficking and enlightened age—but restore its simplicity, its adequacy, and justice.

In every transaction, let the terms and conditions of the bargain be understood BEFOREHAND; *and if important, put in writing; and in cases at all doubtful, insist on a guarantee.*

Be not afraid to ask this; it is the best test of responsibility; for, if offence be taken, you have in all probability escaped loss. He who is in fact responsible, will like you the better for being thus guarded; for he knows he is dealing with a man of prudence, who looks to the end of things, and may therefore expect to be well served. You may always protect yourself by simply insisting on security. "Once well begun is twice done."

Art. VI.—SKETCH OF THE LIFE AND CHARACTER OF CONDY RAGUET.

The late Mr. Condy Raguet, for the last two years, stood among the most able and efficient supporters of this Magazine.* For a long time versed in the affairs of trade, both by his personal connection with its details as a merchant in our own country, and by his subsequent representation of it as a consul in a foreign port, he ranked among the most eminent writers on political economy in the generation in which he lived, and as one of the soundest and most powerful of the advocates of that great system of commercial ethics, to the establishment of which the energies of his later days were directed. Mr. Raguet was born in Philadelphia, in 1784, and was engaged in that city for a number of years in business as a merchant with great success. Losing his large original fortune, together with the accessions made to it by his labor and ability in the revulsion of 1818–19, he retired from mercantile life at an early period in his history with little remaining from an estate which had been once so richly enjoyed and so liberally dispensed, but with a reputation for purity, for honor, for severe and unaccommodating honesty, which stood forth the stronger when the robes of wealth fell away. Mr. Raguet represented the city of Philadelphia for some years in the state senate, where he was the author of several most able and interesting reports on the subject of the banking and trading system, both of Pennsylvania and the United States. On the expiration of his term in 1821, he was appointed consul at Rio Janeiro, and subsequently *chargé d'affaires* at the Court of Brazil. It was in that position that he was called upon to render services to his country which, in the then entangled state of our commerce in South America, were of inestimable value. The Brazilian government, at that time by no means convinced of the dignity and power of its great sister republic to the north, had searched our vessels; had impressed our seamen; had captured our ships; and had imprisoned our citizens. The home-government had, through some unaccountable negligence, omitted to forward to Mr. Raguet instructions for the regulation of his course in an emergency so critical; he was left at Rio Janeiro without a single ship of war to back his arguments in a court where argument is only of use as explanatory of force; and the American minister, finding the more he argued, the more he was misunderstood, took the bold course of demanding his passports, and transferring the negotiations to the seat of government at Washington. The Brazilian authorities were capable of fright, though not of reason; and a Brazilian envoy, Mr. Rebello, was sent after Mr. Raguet as quick as a national ship could carry him, to make the necessary apologies, and to afford the required reparation.

Mr. Raguet's time, since he returned from Brazil, was devoted for some years to the editorship of a number of journals, in all of which he displayed that clear and fair acquaintance with the principles of trade, both as standing by themselves and as connected with the political system of the country, in which no man was his superior. The Examiner and Journal of Political Economy, the Free Trade Advocate, the Banner of the Constitution, and the Financial Register, were occupied with the pro-

* The last effort of his pen prior to his death, formed the leading article in this Magazine for January, 1842.

mulgation of those great maxims of trade of which he was, at that time, the chief spokesman; while in the Philadelphia Gazette, the oldest and one of the widest circulated papers in Philadelphia, he assumed for some years a front place among the leaders of the editorial corps. On his appointment, a few years before his death, as President of the Atlantic Insurance Company, he retired from the political field; and in that office, and as President of the Chamber of Commerce, he brought once more into practical use the abilities and experience which he had shown so eminently in almost every sphere of commercial action. On March 20th, 1842, he died peacefully and quietly, with a name unspotted by the slightest suspicion, and with that full and certain confidence in a Saviour's promises, which a long and consistent career of Christian faith and usefulness had afforded him.

It would be doing injustice to Mr. Raguet's memory, to finish this short notice without touching upon a feature in his character, as prominent as it was lovely. Connected by family ties with the Swedenborg faith, he took an active part, as early as 1817, in organizing in Philadelphia, a congregation which should adopt that singular though beautiful creed. Through the whole of his long and active life, the object nearest to his heart, was the promulgation throughout the world of those great and pure truths which speak out from the New Testament, and which, while he clothed them temporarily with the words which a human interpreter had thrown round them, he advanced, both by his walk and conversation, in their original divine truth and integrity. No sectarian, no bigot, never lingering on the confines of the Christian camp, never straggling among its deserters, never occupying the strength which belonged to a greater cause in border war, or in intestine commotion, he exhibited, during a Christian course of thirty years, that uniform faith, that serene charity, that calm devotion, which made his life happy and useful, and rendered his death-bed a scene of triumph rather than of regret. "He left," said one who was with him near the time, "a particular request, that if any of his friends should draw up a notice of his life or death, they should bear witness to the fact, that he then, in that most solemn hour, declared, that whatever ability he had had to discharge his duties to society, and that whatever there was worthy of approval in his conduct and character, he owed to his belief in the Christian religion as set forth in the writings of Emanuel Swedenborg." Quiet and happy was his death; and of his life it may be said, what can be said of few others, that never in the community of which he so long was a member, was he known to have swerved, in word or deed, from that high profession which had been the strength of his youth, his childhood, and his old age.

Trust to no man's appearances—they are deceptive,—perhaps assumed for the purpose of obtaining credit. Beware of a gaudy exterior. The rich and prudent are plain men. Rogues usually dress well. Never deal with a man who flies in a passion on being dunned;—make him pay quickly, if there be any virtue in the law.

ART. VII.—MERCANTILE ASSUMPTIONS.

IT is frequently a matter of surprise in the administration of civil jurisprudence, how many persons there are actively engaged in the pursuits of a mercantile life, who manifest an unpardonable ignorance of the real nature of not a few of their every-day transactions. The leading features,—the mere outside, of common mercantile transactions, are well enough understood; but beyond this, hundreds and thousands of men pass through life without knowing, or caring to know, any of the numberless niceties, and fine-drawn distinctions, that attend our admirable system of contracts and undertakings—technically known as *assumpsits*. This may appear the more strange when it is remembered that a majority of those actively engaged in trade, involve themselves in such undertakings almost daily—certainly every week of their lives, and often without a consciousness of the extent of the liability assumed. Nay, it is no uncommon occurrence in our civil courts, that judgments are had and recovered against persons who are astounded to find, for the first time, that by an act, the legal import of which they did not then understand, an obligation was entered into which the courts will enforce. The surprise, then, need not be wondered at, that so important a branch of mercantile law—as the doctrine of promises by *implication* only, should not be more entensively understood by merchants and traders generally: and that merchants should so frequently find themselves thrust into aggravating contentions and unprofitable lawsuits, which a proper knowledge of the real nature of their dealings with each other might lead them to avoid.

In view of these familiar facts I could not help imagining that a short and conspicuous compendium of the general doctrine of promises *implied*, embracing leading principles and cases only, as supported by standard judicial decisions, might be acceptable for the columns of your valuable Magazine, circulating extensively, as it does, throughout the commercial circles of the country.

It is unquestionably true, that every agreement ought to be so certain and complete in itself that each party may be able to set it out with precision, should occasion require it. Or, to borrow the definition of a legal writer, *two* or more minds should combine in the thing to be done, or a *mutual* assent should be given to do or not to do a particular act. Agreements, or mutual promises, thus made, must be understood by each of the parties; but if it should prove not to be so in all cases, the fault would be clearly their own. The essential and concurrent qualities of a good and valid contract are thus set out by jurists: A person able to contract—A person willing to contract—A thing to be contracted for—A good and sufficient consideration—Clear and explicit words to express the contract or agreement—The assent of both the parties contracting. Although some slight deficiencies in the requisites of a good and valid contract may be aided by the interposition of equity, yet the general rule is that the absence of any of these essentials invalidates the transaction.

These rules are particularly applicable to positive and express undertakings, such as are ordinarily spoken of as contracts—one ingredient of which is, that the terms are equally known to both parties. But in applying them to the common and daily transactions of business, our law courts frequently manifest a disposition to depart somewhat from the strict

letter, that they may thereby be enabled to enter the more deeply into the spirit and equity of the laws governing this branch of jurisprudence, and give to them a more liberal construction. Thus if A desire B, a shopman, to send him a piece of linen, without specifying any thing concerning the price of the commodity, which request B complies with, and books the linen at eighty cents per yard, the law intends that there is as much an agreement on the part of A to pay for the linen, as though he had given such a promise in writing. If I employ a person to transact my business, or to do some work for me, and that without entering into a specific agreement with him as to what compensation he shall afterwards receive for his services, the law determines that I shall pay him what those services are reasonably worth, and will be satisfied with nothing less, which it does upon the presumption that I really promised to give such compensation. Thus our courts, acting upon impulses of natural reason and justice, which immemorial usage has so incorporated with legal enactments as to render it part and parcel of the *corpus legis*, declare an agreement between parties, when there is, in point of fact, none. The same principles will declare an individual, into whose hands the money of a third person should chance to be paid, or a cargo of merchandise delivered, a trustee for such third person; and also, that a promise had been made to pay over the money, or the value of the goods, upon proper demand by the real owner. So too, in many cases, where one person expends his money for the use and benefit of another, and in all cases when it is done at the request of the party benefited, the law presumes an actual and unconditional promise to refund.

Such are the leading features of the doctrine of promises or agreements implied, or such as are supposed to be grounded in the dictates of reason and equity. To enumerate the particular and individual cases to which this doctrine has been from time to time applied, would be too troublesome an undertaking for the advantages that might be reasonably anticipated from it, while the result would be entirely too prolix for the pages of a periodical devoted to many subjects: a glance at a few of them must suffice for the present. One who entices away or harbors the apprentice of another, agrees to pay wages for the service of such apprentice to his proper master, no matter if he has never seen him. If A inadvertently pay the debt of B to C, and afterwards, upon discovering the mistake, demands a return of the amount, C would be compelled to refund—unless he be able to show that he would suffer loss thereby; assuming that C agreed at the time of the money paid, to refund in the event of mistake. A *general* promise to or with the whole community may arise from the nature of a man's business; as if a parcel of grain be delivered to a miller, without stating for what purpose, the law intends, from the character of his occupation, that he has agreed to return either the grain, or flour, to the person depositing it. The same rule is applied, though somewhat differently, to merchants whose business it is to receive and sell goods on commission; first, as to the degree of care which they shall exercise in storing the goods safely; then as to the discretion necessary to be exercised in the selection of good and responsible customers, when sales are made upon credit; and lastly, in accounting to the principal at the proper time. So also with individuals or companies who undertake the transportation of merchandise from one place to another; the law concerning them operates upon the presumption that they have entered into a general

agreement with their customers, to exercise such care over the merchandise intrusted to them as a man of ordinary carefulness would take of his own property. It is a matter of no consequence whatever in either of these cases, that no actual promise was ever made by one party to the other, nor would it be necessary upon trial to prove any such promise, and that because it is already legally implied, and the law itself is evidence thereof.

There are few readers, perhaps, who are not already familiar with the fact, that the purchaser of real estate takes the property subject to all recorded liens against it—in the nature of mortgages, ground-rents, mechanics' liens, judgments, and various other claims; and so taking it, the law construes the purchase to operate also as an agreement with the holders of such claims to discharge them at the time legally designated, and suits may be entered upon them—suggesting that such a promise was actually made, though the plaintiff and defendant never saw each other. This is rarely done, however, because the most safe and speedy method of proceeding is against the property itself. If I build a house adjoining that of my neighbor, without once speaking to him upon the subject, by the act, itself, I promise and agree to pay him for the party wall, and he may compel me to fulfil such agreement at the distance of any period within six years afterwards.

When one man becomes the surety of another, in any way, and, in default of his principal, is compelled to make payment of the amount for which he was bound; he may recover it again of his principal, upon the plea that such an agreement was made between them. The endorser of a promissory note is, in reality, surety for the fulfilment of the maker's promise, although the courts look upon each subsequent endorser as a new drawer, and, in enforcing payment against him, contemplates him as the original maker. The same rule prevails with respect to bills of exchange. Where money is obtained from a tradesman by false pretence, the obtainer is said to agree, when he makes use of the false pretence, to repay the money upon demand; therefore, in addition to the criminal proceeding, a civil suit may be maintained against him upon such supposed promise.

These judicial decrees may give the reader a general idea of the doctrine of promises and agreements implied, more generally known as assumpsits, which is declared to be a part of the original contract, entered into by all mankind who partake of the benefits of society, and is therefore as ancient as the common law. Though applicable to many kinds of transactions, they are founded upon principles of general application, applied by positive rules, and seldom discovered to be deficient in wisdom or utility.

Beware of thinking all your own that you possess, and of living accordingly. This is a mistake that many people who have credit fall into. To prevent this, keep an exact account for some time, both of your expenses and your income. If you take the pains at first to enumerate particulars, it will have this good effect: you will discover how wonderfully small trifling expenses mount up to large sums; and will discern what might have been, and may for the future be saved, without occasioning any great inconvenience.—*Franklin.*

ART. VIII.—WAREHOUSING AND DOCK SYSTEM.

MUCH has heretofore been said of the warehousing system; it has been several times brought up in Congress, but the discussion it received there, was only in connection with the policy of the government. The January number of the Merchants' Magazine contains some remarks, but they are principally directed to its history and the point of government duties. We propose to take a mercantile and pecuniary view of its operation, and the advantages that would be realized to trade in New York, by its adoption.

The system is exhibited in its greatest perfection in London, where it has had the fairest trial, and where its advantages have been most fully tested. It is probable that no inducement, short of a perfectly free trade, could be offered to the London merchants, that would be an equivalent for its abandonment. On looking at the system as we find it there, we are at once struck with the importance of its connection with public docks, without which one half of its convenience and saving of expense would be lost, and therefore we propose to speak of the two together. The benefits of the system are very numerous, but we propose to refer only to some of the most prominent. These are, saving of time in discharging ships; interest on duties paid; loss by thieving and by fire; premiums of insurance; cartage, &c.

When a ship arrives in London, she is immediately taken to the dock gates, by a steamboat belonging to the dock company; there she is received by men also in the employ of the dock company, hauled into a quay berth, and made fast. These things are all understood between the parties beforehand, and no time is lost in looking for men or otherwise. As soon as the captain has entered his ship at the customhouse, the discharging immediately commences, and goes on without interruption until finished; the goods are all placed in the warehouses on the quay, and arranged with such method that any article may be found in a moment and delivered when wanted; the ship is detained in discharging only from one to four days, according to her size, or the nature of her cargo—average, perhaps, three days—when she is hauled out to another place, to receive her outward cargo.

When a ship arrives at New York, she is detained from eight to twenty days waiting for a berth, for permits from consignees, and in discharging; average time probably twelve days. Here, then, is a clear loss of nine days' charter of the ship, wages, provisions, &c., that would be saved by the public dock and warehousing system. There are over two thousand foreign arrivals in New York yearly. Now, suppose that there are six hundred of these, which is a moderate estimate, whose cargoes would go into public store, and the average size of each to be 320 tons. A fair charter for such a ship is twelve hundred dollars a month, or forty dollars a day. The saving then to the business of New York, by the establishment of public docks and warehouses in this item, would be two hundred and sixteen thousand dollars annually.

The revenue collected by the government in the port of New York, has sometimes exceeded sixteen millions of dollars, and we assume that the average amount of goods resting for a time in the public store, would pay one quarter of this sum; here, then, we have a saving to the merchants of the yearly interest on four millions of dollars, which at seven per cent is two hundred and eighty thousand.

Few persons are aware of the extent of petty thieving about the docks in this city; but in addition to this it is very often the case, that whole packages of goods are missing from the docks after having been discharged from the ships. And it is not long since, that an officer of a ship was charged with abstracting a box of gold of the value of eight thousand dollars. By the establishment of public docks well guarded, and shut at night, where no person could carry any thing in or out without being examined, these things could not transpire. In London no person can go in or out of dock but those employed in it without a permit, and it requires the connivance of an officer of the government and the dock company to enable any one to abstract a package. At night the docks are closed, and there is no ingress or egress. Mr. McCulloch, who is justly celebrated for his accuracy in English statistics, has estimated that the saving to London merchants from this source alone, by means of docks and warehouses, is five hundred thousand pounds annually. But suppose this to be a large estimate, and that it would amount here to only one twentieth part of that sum; still, here is another clear saving of seventy-five thousand dollars annually.

The warehouses in London are all constructed perfectly fire-proof; no fire or lights are permitted to be used in them, and none on board vessels in the docks after about two o'clock in the day; consequently there is no risk from fire, except by spontaneous combustion. Suppose then, that the whole value of goods that would remain in public store in New York, if the same system was adopted here, should be ten millions of dollars; a fair price of insurance on which, would be $\frac{3}{100}$ per cent, or three dollars to the thousand; the yearly saving in premiums of insurance would be thirty thousand dollars.

On every importation of ad valorem goods, by our present system, one or more packages of each invoice must be sent to the customhouse for appraisement, and the expense on each package so sent, for cartage back and forth, and other charges, is not much short of one dollar. The number of English and French packets arriving here yearly, is one hundred and fifty-four. Suppose then, that one hundred packages are sent to the customhouse from each of these packets, and twenty from each of the other ships, here is an annual expense to the merchants of twenty-one thousand one hundred dollars. It is fair to suppose, that one half of all the importations being sold in original packages, would be delivered to the purchasers from the public warehouses, and thus one cartage be saved. Fifty thousand dollars would be a moderate estimate for this expense; the gross savings, therefore, in these two items, would be seventy-one thousand one hundred dollars. Total of saving in the items enumerated, viz:—

Charter of ships	$216,000
Interest on duties	280,000
Goods lost and stolen	75,000
Premiums of insurance	30,000
Cartages	71,100
Total	$672,100

A sum equal to the fair annual business profits of one hundred respectable merchants. But there are other considerations of convenience in which the saving would be great, but in which the calculation cannot be so readily made. Great inconvenience is constantly experienced here,

by owners of goods who are in haste to receive them; there are others who are not so situated, and who therefore withhold the necessary permits to land, making a storehouse of the ship until it suits their convenience to receive them; those goods may be on the top of the cargo, and no others can be got out until they are removed; the merchant who is anxious to receive his goods, not being able to get them, loses his sale, and heavy losses sometimes occur in consequence of this delay. The writer lately heard of a gentleman in the book trade meeting a heavy loss, by not receiving his English annuals until after New Year. Goods on the top of a cargo are often consigned to order, and the captain or consignee of the ship not knowing who to apply to, the ship and other consignees of the cargo are detained often a full week doing nothing, and then the owner of the goods, after having by his delay disobliged everybody else concerned, makes himself known and receives them. All these inconveniences and losses would be remedied by the warehousing system and public docks united: people who wanted them, could be put in possession of their goods at least a week sooner, on an average, than at present, and of course a week's interest on all the capital employed would be saved, which, considering the immense amount constantly in transitu, would of itself be an important matter.

Goods for debenture would pass through less forms, and be subject to less exposure than at present. Freight would be more secure. A freight is never lost by a merchant failing in London, the laws of the country always giving a lien while it is in the warehouse, and custom requiring it to be paid before delivery.

The warehousing system has been objected to by political men on the ground, that there was danger of loss to the government, by the abstraction of goods without paying the duties. This fear undoubtedly had its origin in the case of Mr. Thompson, of Philadelphia, who, it is said, removed a large quantity of teas from the public store, while the government permitted them to remain in entrepot. The danger in that case, however, and in all others which have yet been in practice in this country, has arisen from the inadequacy of provision for security, importers having generally been allowed to put their own store under customhouse key, and the key often left in their own office; but in a well-regulated system of public docks and warehouses connected with them, where numbers of public officers are always in attendance, there would be no such danger; and it is fair to presume, that the prevention of smuggling afforded by this means, would save to the government at least fifty thousand dollars annually in duties. Added to this, a plan of cash duties, which would probably go along with it, would doubtless save to the government a hundred thousand dollars annually, in this port, which is at present lost in bad debts. Not exceeding one half the number of officers would be wanted in the customhouse which are necessary for conducting its business in the scattered manner in which it is now done. And here would be another saving to the government of not less than one hundred and fifty thousand dollars.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

At the date of our last number the leading features of the market were, an abundance of money accompanied by an indisposition to invest in stocks, growing out of the circumstances attending the then approaching election in the state of New York. Those circumstances we then briefly enumerated, marking the distinction between the contending parties. The one being in favor of an increase of the state debt, and the repeal of the mill tax, levied at the last session of the legislature, and pledged for the redemption of a loan of $3,000,000, seven per cent stock, subsequently procured on the faith of that pledge. The determination of the other was to persevere in the policy they had hitherto pursued. The result has been an overwhelming majority in favor of the latter party. It is true many circumstances combined to produce this result, but the question on which the election more directly turned was that of the debt and tax. Its immediate influence upon the stock market has already been beneficial. The friends of credit and of the restoration of commercial confidence were anxious for the result of this first appeal to the people on the question of taxation for the payment of debts. The result has not disappointed them. The people have clearly given their voice for the payment of taxes pledged for the maintenance of the state faith. Hence the credit of the state of New York is above reproach, and she ranks foremost in point of financial reputation. The immediate effect upon the market is evinced in the prices of the stocks issued by the state—all denominations having risen two to eight per cent under the demand for investment. Some other stocks have also improved, particularly Ohio and Kentucky. The government treasury notes have, however, fallen to par with a downward tendency, and its six per cent stock has been yet utterly neglected. The fall in treasury notes has been mainly brought about by the decreased demand from the banks for investment. Some weeks since, the New York banks held upwards of $7,000,000 in specie—a cumbrous and unprofitable investment; scarcely any demand existed for it, and it hung upon their hands a dead weight. Under such circumstances, the treasury notes of the federal government being available with the interest at any moment, formed a very desirable investment, and were sought after even at a premium. That state of affairs, if we may use the expression, was the "slack water" of business. Specie from all quarters had been accumulating in the banks, both here and in Europe, with but little demand for its employment in the channels of business. As the new crops came forward, the rates of bills gradually fell at all points. The new tariff operating to prevent imports, of course cut off the demand for bills from importers at the seaports. The low price of products in the interior, and the absence of credit, checked the purchase of goods on the Atlantic border, and caused inland bills to fall *pari passu* with the foreign exchanges. At New Orleans, where the largest quantity of produce arrives, bills first reached a point at which a new demand is created for the import of specie, which commenced as we described in our last number, and has been steadily in progress since. The precious metals flow into that point from Mexico, Cuba, France, England, and New York. The activity of specie has thus commenced, and will, as the season progresses, extend to all other commercial centres. Already at Cincinnati sight bills on New York have been sold at ½ of one per cent discount, when usually at this season, in consequence of the fall purchases of goods, they are in favor of that point. This demand for specie at New York has much lessened the desire of the banks to invest in any thing but the best business paper. When bills are very low here, the import of specie is more likely to take place direct to the south from England than through New York. The drafts upon New York will be slowly supplied by the circuitous movement of the precious metals coming back in the purchase

of goods. This must necessarily be after the channels of circulation vacated by the immense reduction in the paper currency have become filled with the precious metals. The following table gives the progressive equalization of the exchanges:—

RATES OF DOMESTIC BILLS AT NEW YORK.

Places.	*February.*	*May* 1.	*May* 30.	*June* 15.	*Nov.* 15.
Boston,.....	¼ a ⅜	¼ a ⅜	par a ¼	par a ¼	par a ⅜
Philadelphia,....	7 a 8¼	par a di.⅛	⅛ a ¼	par a ⅛	par a ⅛
Baltimore,.....	2 a 3	⅛ a ¼	⅛ a ¼	par a ¼	⅛ a ¼
Richmond,.....	9 a 12½	7½ a 7½	2½ a 3	2½ a 2¾	1½ a 1¾
N. Carolina,.....	5½ a 5½	5½ a 5¾	3½ a 3½	3 a 3¼	1½ a 2
Savannah,.....	2½ a 3	2½ a 2½	1¾ a 2	1¾ a 2	1¼ a 1½
Charleston,.....	1½ a 1¾	1½ a 1¾	1½ a 1¾	1¼ a 1½	1¼ a 1½
Mobile,.....	12½ a 13	19 a 20	29 a 30	26 a 26½	19 a 20
New Orleans,...	6½ a 7	6¾ a 7	1 a 2	1¼ a 1½	pr.1¾ a 2
Louisville,.....	9½ a 10	5 a 6	3½ a 4	3 a 3½	di.2 a 2¼
Nashville,.....	14 a 14½	17 a 18	12½ a 15	10 a 11	di.4 a 5
St. Louis,.....	13 a 14	6 a	4 a 5	7 a 8	di.1½ a 2
Cincinnati,.....	15 a 16	8 a 10	4 a 5	3½ a 4	di.1½ a 2
Indiana,.....	16 a 17	a 10	8 a 9	8 a 9	di.3 a 3½
Illinois,.....	17 a 18	.....	7 a 9	7 a 8	

The results of the late elections are strongly in favor of the party opposed to banks and this fact in Ohio will be fraught with important consequences, inasmuch as the charters of a large portion of the banks in that state expire next year. The following is a table of the affairs of those banks in operation, according to the last report of the Auditor, with the date of the expiration of their charters:—

OHIO BANKS, SEPTEMBER, 1842.

	Loans.	*Specie.*	*Circula.*	*Deposits.*	*Charter Expires.*
Bank of Zanesville.....	122,400	5,300	11,623	8,610	Jan. 1843.
" " Muskingum.....	118,688	2,784	7,771	17,163	" "
Ohio Life and Trust.....	147,860	61,427	298,895	194,186	" "
Franklin Bank, Cincinnati.....	947,271	122,211	20,890	249,851	" "
Columbian Bank, N. Lisbon.....	90,007	16,750	19,139	17,882	" "
Dayton Bank.....	50,914	13,099	19,127	1,411	" "
Bank of Mount Pleasant.....	53,575	4,337	8,966	15,051	" "
Western Reserve Bank.....	170,544	30,339	20,154	12,240	" "
Commercial Bank of Scioto.....	341,292	21,951	114,998	20,445	" "
Farmers' and Mechanics' Bank of Steubenville.....	178,897	63,477	15,735	53,842	" "
Franklin Bank, Columbus.....	152,102	68,822	110,617	57,681	" "
Bank of Geauga.....	139,165	9,997	17,710	18,774	" 1844.
Total.....	2,512,915	401,487	665,625	367,136	
Bank of Sandusky.....	174,401	49,017	165,760	32,926	May 1850.
" Wooster.....	406,522	62,052	279,275	45,249	June "
Lafayette Bank of Cincinnati....	875,073	53,424	32,930	39,242	Jan. 1854.
Bank of Massillon.....	247,394	35,117	170,786	37,391	June 1855.
Clinton Bank, Columbus.....	438,856	58,865	210,165	43,947	Jan. 1854.
Bank of Xenia.....	133,579	29,434	62,310	42,262	May 1850.
" Circleville.....	313,304	42,215	163,027	37,394	" 1855.
" Norwalk.....	189,129	44,971	24,655	90,489	Jan. 1850.
Total.....	2,778,258	375,095	1,108,908	368,900	
To expire.....	2,512,915	401,487	665,625	367,136	
Grand Total.....	5,291,173	776,582	1,774,533	736,036	

This gives a reduction of nearly one half of the bank facilities of that state during the coming year, leaving in operation eight banks, with a paper circulation of about

$1,100,000 only. According to this return, the banking of Ohio, in 1843, as compared with the highest point of inflation, January, 1836, will present the following results:—

	No. Banks.	*Loans.*	*Specie.*	*Circulation.*	*Deposits.*
1836.....	31	17,079,714	2,924,906	9,675,644	6,125,914
1843.....	8	2,778,258	375,095	1,108,908	368,900
Decrease.....		$14,301,456	2,549,811	8,566,736	5,757,014

This enormous reduction in the banking movement has prevailed to a greater or less extent all over the Union, and is now to be supplied with the precious metals. During this contraction of the paper currency of the country, the products of the soil have immensely increased. In order to observe the movement of produce in connection with that of the banks, we will take the banking movement of the four states of Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, and Michigan, for 1836 and 1842, and the arrival of flour and wheat, the products of those states, at the two great outlets, the Erie Canal and New Orleans, for a corresponding period:—

	Bank Loans.	*Circulation.*	*Deposits.*	*Flour arr. at N. Orl. bbls.*	*Arr. at the E. Canal. bbls.*
1836.....	27,334,118	15,058,132	11,231,879	287,462	377,455
1842.....	7,271,728	4,088,908	650,241	466,665	1,551,705
Increase.				179,203	1,174,250
Decrease.	20,062,390	10,969,224	10,581,638		

The produce of these states has, it appears, increased in as great a ratio as the paper currency has decreased. Michigan, from being an importing state in 1836, has become a very large exporting state. The long suspension of the banks operated to drive out the specie currency, and now that those institutions have perished in spite of their suspension, the currency is to be resupplied by the slow progress of exporting and selling produce at low prices; which low prices are a necessary consequence of the absence of that specie, and will be remedied by the twofold operation of a decreasing surplus and increasing currency.

At the approaching session of Congress many questions of the highest importance to the mercantile world will be discussed. The most important of them undoubtedly is the modification of the tariff, passed at the last session of Congress. This will probably be done, at least, in so far as to admit of a system of warehousing in connection with the cash duties. This is a matter of first necessity. The present tariff requires the payment of duties averaging 30 per cent ad valorem, cash on the arrival of the goods. This is equivalent to an imposition of about 5 per cent extra upon the imports, inasmuch as it is an advance of the duties to the government by the importing merchant, who must, of course, reimburse himself by charging on the goods the interest upon the duties so advanced, which enhances their cost to the consumer. This is a great evil; but the general operation of paralyzing the capital engaged in commerce is a far greater one. The imports into the United States for the last five years, average $130,300,000. The duties on this sum would amount to $39,090,000, which must be advanced to the government and lay dead out of capital employed in the foreign trade. The whole amount of capital employed in that trade, according to the census, is $119,295,367. Under the present tariff, therefore, that capital would be reduced 33 per cent. In a country like this, where the great feature is scarcity of capital, this cannot take place without serious injury to the whole community; neither is it desirable that credit should be given to an extent which will allow foreign houses to send consignments here and realize and remit the proceeds long before their bonds for the duties fall due. The warehousing system, like that in practice in England, holds out the remedy. Under that system the utmost free-

dom of commerce exists. Goods are imported, landed, packed, repacked, assorted, and re-exported, without any outlay of mercantile capital on government account. When sold for consumption, and the importer realizes the whole value of the goods, then the duties are exacted and paid. The whole resources of the merchants are employed in their own enterprises. If this is the case in England, how much more desirable is it here, where capital is so scarce as to be hired at 6 per cent in England for banking purposes.

The operation of the tariff, passed at the late session, appears hitherto to have produced but little effect. On the first passage of the tariff the prices of many of the dutiable articles nominally rose, but it subsequently appeared, as the fall business advanced, that, owing to the very restricted state of the currency in the interior, and the extreme low prices of produce, that the purchases of goods for consumption would be far from sufficient to sustain even the prices previously existing, and rates have again gone back on most articles. This state of things will probably continue for many months, until the flow of specie, now in progress to the interior, shall have filled the channels of circulation, raised prices, and renewed purchases. The present stock of goods will then work off, and a modification of the tariff give room for the resumption of the import of goods in return for the increasing exports of agricultural produce. The modification of the tariff will acquire additional importance at the coming session, from the necessity of adopting some means of providing a revenue for the government. The protective features must give place to the demand for revenue, which can only be obtained by consulting the highest rate which each article will bear without checking its import. For the welfare of the city and state of New York more particularly, is it requisite that the restrictions on commerce should be removed. The following table will show the amount of imports into the leading states for twenty years, with the total import into the United States :—

TABLE SHOWING THE IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FOR TWENTY YEARS, DISTINGUISHING THE LEADING PORTS OF ENTRY.

	Mass.	*N. York.*	*Penn.*	*Maryl.*	*S. Car.*	*Louisiana.*	*Total all Imports.*
1821 . . .	14,826,732	23,629,246	8,158,922	4,070,842	3,007,113	3,379,717	62,577,267
1822 . . .	18,337,320	35,445,628	11,874,170	4,792,486	2,268,596	3,817,238	83,241,541
1823 . . .	17,607,160	29,421,349	13,696,770	4,946,179	2,419,101	4,283,125	77,579,267
1824 . . .	15,378,758	36,113,723	11,865,531	4,551,642	2,166,185	4,5[illegible]9,769	80,549,007
1825 . . .	15,845,141	49,639,174	15,041,797	4,751,815	1,992,297	4,290,034	96,340,075
1826 . . .	17,068,492	38,115,630	13,551,779	4,923,569	1,534,483	4,167,521	84,974,477
1827 . . .	13,370,564	38,719,644	11,212,995	4,405,708	1,434,106	4,531,645	79,421,068
1828 . . .	15,070,444	41,927,792	12,884,408	5,629,694	1,242,048	6,217,881	88,509,824
1829 . . .	12,520,744	34,743,807	10,100,152	4,804,185	1,139,618	6,857,209	74,492,527
1830 . . .	10,453,544	35,624,070	8,702,122	4,523,866	1,054,619	7,599,083	70,876,920
1831 . . .	14,269,066	57,077,417	12,124,083	4,826,577	1,238,163	9,766,693	103,191,124
1832 . . .	18,118,900	53,214,402	10,678,358	4,629,308	1,213,725	8,871,653	101,029,266
1833 . . .	19,940,911	55,918,449	10,471,250	5,437,057	1,517,705	9,590,505	108,118,311
1834 . . .	17,672,129	73,188,594	10,479,268	4,647,483	1,787,267	13,781,809	126,521,332
1835 . . .	19,800,373	88,191,305	12,399,937	5,647,153	1,891,805	17,519,814	149,895,742
1836 . . .	25,681,482	118,258,416	15,068,233	7,131,367	2,801,361	15,117,649	189,980,035
1837 . . .	19,984,668	79,301,722	11,680,111	7,857,083	2,510,860	14,020,012	140,999,217
1838 . . .	13,300,925	68,453,206	9,360,371	5,701,869	2,318,791	9,496,808	113,717,404
1839 . . .	19,395,223	99,882,438	15,050,715	6,995,285	3,086,077	12,064,962	162,092,132
1840 . . .	16,513,858	60,440,750	8,464,882	4,910,746	2,058,870	10,673,190	107,141,519
1841 . . .	20,318,008	75,718,426	10,346,698	6,101,313	1,557,431	10,256,350	127,966,177

This table embraces a period of the complete operation of four general tariffs, viz.: the tariff of 1824, the high protective tariff of 1828, that of 1832, and the compromise act of 1833. From 1821 to 1830, the banking movement in the United States was remarkably steady. The loans of the United States Bank, which was the governing power, varied in all that time scarcely $3,000,000. The consequence was that every increase of the duties checked imports in a marked degree. In 1828, the imports were

large previous to the operation of the tariff. In the two succeeding years they fell off immensely. In 1831, they began to feel the impulse of the bank movement. From 1830 to 1833, the national bank extended its loans from $40,000,000 to $66,000,000, or 65 per cent in two years. This movement of the "regulator" was followed by that of all the banks in the Union, and by a combination of circumstances the inflation, with some drawbacks, continued to the great explosion of 1836–7; from which time the general movement of banks has been that of curtailment. The column of imports into New York, presents the influence of these events. From 1821 to 1825, the whole imports rose $34,000,000, of which $26,000,000 was into the port of New York. Under the tariff which came into operation in that year, the imports fell off $17,000,000 in 1827; of which $9,000,000 was in the port of New York. Under the tariff of 1828, a farther fall of $9,000,000 in 1830 took place; of which $6,000,000 was in the port of New York. From that year up to 1836, under the bank expansion, a total increase in imports of $119,000,000 took place; $83,000,000, or nearly 80 per cent of the amount, was in New York. Down to 1841, under decreasing duties, but a contracting currency, a decrease of $82,000,000 took place; $68,000,000, or 83 per cent of this was in New York,—an immense falling off in business. These facts show, concisely, that two causes operate powerfully upon the welfare of New York, more than upon the rest of the Union, viz.: a high tariff and a dear currency. Under the contracting currency with decreasing duties, the trade of New York fell off from 1839 to 1840, 77 per cent. She has now to encounter a still farther reduction of the currency, added to duties meant to be protective. Under such circumstances it is fair to conclude that the imports will be carried back to the grade, at least, of 1830, viz.: $70,000,000, or about $36,000,000 in New York; and this at a time when the connection of Boston with the western country, by railroad, has revolutionized the trade in domestic goods, and has withdrawn from New York a large commission business. This latter circumstance has, during the past year, operated greatly to the benefit of Boston and to the prejudice of New York; a result which is clearly distinguishable in the official returns of the assessed value of property in the two cities for 1841 and 1842, as follows:—

ASSESSED VALUE OF PROPERTY AND TAXATION IN NEW YORK AND BOSTON, FOR 1841 AND 1842.

	Boston.			New York.		
	Real Estate.	*Personal Estate.*	*Total.*	*Real Estate.*	*Personal Estate.*	*Total.*
1841,	$62,063,000	$36,043,600	$98,106,600	$186,350,948	$64,843,972	$251,194,920
1842,	65,509,500	41,223,800	106,733,300	176,489,042	61,294,559	237,783,601
Incre.	$3,546,500	$5,180,200	$8,626,700			
Decre.				$9,861,906	$3,549,413	$13,411,319

It is not alone the commerce of New York that is affected by the tariff, but the shipping interest of the whole Union suffers severely. It is obvious that the great employment for the registered tonnage of the country is the foreign trade of the United States, or that which it sells to or buys from foreign countries. Whatever tends to increase the quantities of articles so sold or purchased must increase the business of the shipping, and that which tends to diminish those quantities inflicts a serious injury upon the commerce and navigation of the country. The above table shows conclusively that in a steady specie currency a high tariff is ruinous. This fact is discoverable in the following table, consisting of the registered tonnage of the United States, at different periods, and the quantity of American and foreign tonnage entered and cleared from the United States:—

REGISTERED TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES, WITH THE NUMBER OF TONS ENTERED AND CLEARED, DISTINGUISHING THE AMERICAN FROM THE FOREIGN.

	REGISTERED TONNAGE.	TONNAGE ENTERED.		TONNAGE CLEARED.	
		American.	*Foreign.*	*American.*	*Foreign.*
1821	.....	765,089	81,526	804,947	83,073
1822	.....	787,961	100,541	813,748	97,490
1823	.....	755,271	119,468	810,761	119,740
1824	.....	850,033	102,367	919,278	102,552
1825	.....	880,754	92,927	960,366	95,080
1826	.....	942,246	105,654	953,012	99,417
1827	.....	918,361	137,589	980,542	131,250
1828	656,000	868,381	150,223	897,404	151,030
1829	650,142	872,949	130,743	944,799	133,006
1830	576,471	967,277	131,900	971,760	133,436
1831	620,451	922,952	281,948	972,504	271,994
1832	686,980	949,622	393,038	974,865	387,505
1833	750,026	1,111,441	496,705	1,142,160	497,039
1834	857,438	1,074,670	568,052	1,134,020	577,700
1835	885,821	1,352,653	641,310	1,400,517	630,824
1836	897,774	1,255,384	680,213	1,315,523	674,721
1837	810,447	1,299,720	765,703	1,266,682	756,292
1838	822,591	1,302,974	592,110	1,408,761	604,166
1839	834,244	1,491,279	624,814	1,477,928	611,839
1840	899,764	1,576,946	712,363	1,646,009	706,484
1841	945,803	1,631,909	736,144	1,634,156	738,849

In relation to the tonnage owned by the United States, it appears that, under the high tariff of 1828, corresponding with the period when the imports fell off so largely, the registered tonnage declined sixteen per cent; and subsequently, under the increasing crops of cotton and the swelling volume of imports, it increased sixty per cent in the six years ending in 1836. The year 1841 shows an increase of seven per cent in the registered tonnage over that of 1836. In the same time, the American tonnage entered the United States increased 372,000 tons, or about thirty per cent, while the foreign tonnage declined four per cent. The clearances show nearly the same features, and the table presents the following results for twelve years, from 1830 to 1841 :—

	REGISTERED TONNAGE.	TONS ENTERED.		TONS CLEARED.	
		American.	*Foreign.*	*American.*	*Foreign.*
1830, ...	576,471	967,227	131,900	971,760	133,436
1841, ...	945,803	1,631,909	736,144	1,634,156	738,849
Increase, ...	369,332	664,682	604,244	662,396	605,413
" per cent,	64	68.7	457	68	452

This gives a remarkable increase in the foreign tons trading to the United States, and is ascribed to the effect of the proclamation of General Jackson, in October, 1830, pursuant to an act of Congress, to the effect that British vessels and their cargoes were admitted on entry from the islands, provinces, and colonies of Great Britain. This was in accordance with the terms of previous negotiations with Great Britain, which it is alleged have been evaded by that power. The imports and exports of goods, it appears, kept pace with this increased tonnage in the trade, as the following comparative table will show :—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES WITH THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS, AND ALL PARTS OF THE WORLD.

	IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
TO	1821.	1830.	1840.	1821.	1830.	1840.
Great Britain	25,087,108	24,519,214	33,737,699	20,777,480	26,329,359	59,317,362
Br. Am. Col's	490,704	650,303	2,007,767	2,009,791	3,786,373	6,093,250
Br. W. Indies	927,346	168,579	1,048,165	265,102	1,901	2,96[illegible]584
Total, World	62,585,724	70,876,920	107,141,519	64,974,382	73,849,508	132,085,946

This gives the fact that the aggregate trade with the British American colonies increased, in the ten years from 1830, from $4,436,676 to $8,601,017, nearly a hundred per cent. The tonnage in that trade increased as follows :—

TONNAGE ENGAGED IN THE TRADE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND THE NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Amer. Tons.	*For. Tons.*	*Amer. Tons.*	*For. Tons.*
1820,.....	110,821	405	112,223	3,169
1830,.....	130,527	4,002	117,171	14,267
1840,.....	373,149	387,947	357,073	401,805
Increase from 1830,...	242,622	383,945	239,902	387,538

This gives a great increase in the foreign tonnage. The following table, however, puts a new face on it, as follows :—

VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES WITH THE BRITISH AMERICAN COLONIES, DISTINGUISHING THE TONNAGE.

	IMPORTS INTO UNITED STATES.			EXPORTS FROM UNITED STATES.		
	Amer. Vess.	*For. Vess.*	*Total.*	*Amer. Vess.*	*For. Vess.*	*Total.*
1834,.....	$1,103,956	$444,774	$1,548,733	$2,448,356	$1,126,914	$3,535,276
1840,.....	1,431,264	576,503	2,007,767	4,191,649	1,908,352	6,100,005
Increase,..	$327,308	$131,729	$459,034	$1,743,293	$781,438	$2,564,729

Here we have the fact that the increase of 387,945 foreign tons entered the United States, from 1830 to 1841, was merely nominal, the increase of business in those tons being but $131,729. This nominal increase in British colonial tonnage forms sixty per cent of the aggregate increase of foreign tonnage in the whole United States, and deducted therefrom, gives an actual increase of foreign trading tonnage of 220,299 tons, against an increase in the same period of 664,682 in American tonnage. Again, it appears that the aggregate business between the United States, the British West Indies and American colonies, increased, from 1821 to 1830, $1,936,181, and in the subsequent ten years, $3,563,311. Hence it appears that the proclamation issued by General Jackson, by removing restrictions on the trade of the colonies, increased the commerce $1,600,000 per annum, sixty-five per cent of which was enjoyed by American vessels. This does not appear to be an evil so great in its influence upon the whole country as to warrant the return to the prohibitory system previously in operation. It has been advanced as a disadvantage to the United States that English vessels, like the Cunard line of steamers, can proceed from England to the colonies and thence to the United States, and return by the same route, while American vessels are prohibited from so doing. Now, if the United States enjoyed that privilege, they would not avail themselves of it, because it is a losing voyage; and it seems odd to advise the prohibition of the advantages now enjoyed, by the outlay of British capital in that enterprise, for the nominal right of engaging in a similar one. The general result goes to show, that as long as American shipping is relieved from onerous taxation at home, it can successfully compete with that of all the world, in science of construction, and skill and enterprise in navigation. The great object is to procure as extended a market as possible for the agricultural products of the United States, which are far beyond the consumptive powers of the people. The British colonies bought in 1840 the following quantities of those articles :—

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS EXPORTED FROM THE U. S. IN 1840.

Articles.	*To British Colonies.* *No.*	*Value.*		*Total Exports.* *No.*	*Value.*
Rice,.....tierces	6,003	$120,828	tierces	101,660	$1,942,076
Apples,.....barrels	11,750	23,696	barrels	23,396	55,131
Ship Bread,..... "	86,274	280,260	"	147,033	428,988
Potatoes, ... "	23,867	10,364	"	123,549	54,524
Rye,.....	.....	57,597		.....	113,393
Meal—Rye and Indian,..bbls.	180,406	600,180	barrels	259,281	876,114
Indian Corn,.....bush.	275,567	164,763	"	574,279	338,333
Flour,.....barrels	664,685	3,371,402	"	1,897,501	10,143,615
Wheat, ...bush.	1,100,347	944,162	"	1,720,860	1,635,483
Butter and Cheese,.....lbs.	725,151	75,862	"	723,217	210,749
Pork, &c.....	.....	665,876		.....	1,894,894
Beef, &c.....	.....	311,900		.....	623,373
Naval Stores,.....barrels	17,342	37,032	barrels	259,776	602,529
Other agricultural articles,.....	.....	2,139,630		.....	810,201
Total Value,.....		$8,803,550			$19,729,403
Exported in American vessels,.....		6,655,224			
" foreign vessels, ...		2,148,326			

The export to these colonies in 1829 amounted to $2,725,567, being an increase in the sale of agricultural products to the extent of $6,077,983, of which seventy-five per cent goes in American vessels. It thus appears that the effect of the proclamation was to double the market for agricultural produce—a market which is now rapidly increasing. It must be a very lame policy which would suggest the destruction of this trade, with which the welfare of the western states is somewhat connected, merely because Great Britain lays unwholesome restraints upon her colonies.

The fact that the article of gypsum is imported mostly in foreign bottoms is relied upon chiefly as a reason why the existing regulations are injurious to the United States. The following table will show the comparative importance of that article in the trade between the United States and the colonies:—

IMPORT OF GYPSUM FROM THE COLONIES INTO THE UNITED STATES, WITH THE AGGREGATE IMPORT AND EXPORT, DISTINGUISHING THE AMOUNT CARRIED IN AMERICAN VESSELS.

	Gypsum.	*Imports and Exports.*	*In Amer. Vessels.*	*In For. Vessels.*
1829.....	$61,307	$3,589,196	$3,462,850	$136,346
1830.....	119,234	4,607,056	4,524,623	82,533
1834	172,837	7,844,057	5,613,403	2,230,634
1835.....	87,531	8,473,820	6,088,754	2,384,976
1836.....	120,081	8,210,610	5,463,965	2,746,648
1837.....	141,819	9,218,215	6,468,263	2,748,953
1838	130,233	8,115,761	5,734,511	2,381,256
1839.....	127,518	9,243,774	6,735,678	2,488,096
1840..... ...	129,401	12,121,517	8,879,549	3,361,968
1841.....				

Now it appears that, since 1830, the import of gypsum from the colonies has scarcely increased at all; while the trade to and from the colonies, in American vessels, has increased 150 per cent, or $5,300,000; while that in foreign vessels has also increased $3,300,000. Hence it appears that the opening of the imports has been of immense importance to the United States; and had Great Britain allowed the United States vessels to buy her gypsum, her sales of that article would undoubtedly have increased in the same proportion as have the sales of American produce. Hence her restrictions have been a serious injury to her own subjects, while the citizens of the United States have been immensely benefited by the liberal policy of the government.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

NAVIGATION AND TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1841.

Statement exhibiting a Condensed View of the Tonnage of the Several Districts of the United States, on the 30th of September, 1841; *derived from the Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, made as required by Act of Congress.*

Districts.		*Registered Tonnage.* Tons and 95ths.	*Enrolled and Licensed Tonn.* Tons and 95ths.	*Total Tonn. of each Dist.* Tons & 95ths.
Passamaquoddy,	Maine	1,220 44	8,667 92	10,588 41
Machias,	do	1,395 44	12,752 37	14,147 81
Frenchman's Bay,	do	2,331 50	13,096 20	15,427 70
Penobscot,	do	6,100 18	30,025 59	36,125 77
Belfast,	do	7,927 81	31,686 00	39,613 81
Waldoborough,	do	12,343 13	38,913 18	51,257 31
Wiscasset,	do	4,514 60	8,900 79	13,415 44
Bath,	do	34,813 16	23,237 32	58,050 48
Portland,	do	37,515 26	17,494 60	55,009 86
Saco,	do	659 93	2,242 90	2,902 18
Kennebunk,	do	5,798 75	1,910 98	7,709 08
York,	do	.....	1,042 62	1,042 62
Portsmouth,	New Hampshire	17,372 11	8,335 74	25,707 85
Newburyport,	Massachusetts	14,286 44	8,931 30	23,217 74
Ipswich,	do	.....	2,514 45	2,514 45
Gloucester,	do	2,303 02	14,393 16	16,696 18
Salem,	do	22,873 02	13,706 51	36,579 53
Marblehead,	do	2,538 16	9,024 81	11,563 02
Boston,	do	158,803 50	68,804 44	227,607 94
Plymouth,	do	13,976 08	12,984 69	26,960 77
Fall River,	do	2,633 77	5,688 79	8,322 61
New Bedford,	do	65,213 64	31,539 20	96,752 84
Barnstable,	do	3,237 46	51,832 36	55,069 82
Edgartown,	do	5,007 63	2,300 25	7,307 88
Nantucket,	do	25,658 09	7,649 36	33,307 45
Providence,	Rhode Island	12,681 81	5,320 09	18,000 90
Bristol,	do	8,191 53	4,737 67	12,929 25
Newport,	do	5,291 70	5,862 46	11,154 21
Middletown,	Connecticut	926 58	9,775 01	10,701 59
New London,	do	20,718 81	14,717 79	35,436 65
New Haven,	do	3,864 41	6,344 57	10,209 03
Fairfield,	do	912 52	8,019 50	8,932 07
Vermont,	Vermont	.....	4,343 30	4,343 30
Champlain,	New York	.....	1,633 02	1,633 02
Sackett's Harbor,	do	.....	2,059 72	2,059 72
Oswego,	do	.....	6,872 38	6,872 38
Niagara,	do	.....	231 89	231 89
Genesee,	do	.....	442 48	442 48
Oswegatchie,	do	.....	855 15	855 15
Buffalo Creek,	do	.....	14,993 75	14,993 75
Sag Harbor,	do	12,783 28	6,237 44	19,020 72
New York,	do	225,174 36	212,840 02	438,014 38
Cape Vincent,	do	.....	2,529 83	2,529 83
Perth Amboy,	New Jersey	.....	15,194 12	15,194 12
Bridgetown,	do	249 29	9,822 30	10,116 59
Camden,	do	.....	4,358 44	4,358 44
Newark,	do	548 38	5,776 85	6,325 28
Burlington,	do	.....	3,936 44	3,936 44
Little Egg Harbor,	do	.....	5,021 01	5,021 01
Great Egg Harbor,	do	.....	8,652 32	8,652 32

TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC.—*Continued.*

Districts.		*Registered Tonnage.* Tons and 95ths.	*Enrolled and Licensed Tonn.* Tons and 95ths.	*Total Tonn. of each Dist.* Tons & 95ths
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania	47,379 91	58,425 50	105,805 41
Presque Isle,	do	.....	2,819 84	2,819 84
Pittsburg,	do	.....	10,342 77	10,342 77
Wilmington,	Delaware	906 37	4,048 31	4,954 68
Newcastle,	do	.....	5,101 35	5,101 35
Baltimore,	Maryland	37,752 32	45,886 09	83,638 41
Oxford,	do	.....	7,827 81	7,827 81
Vienna,	do	832 31	10,441 39	11,273 70
Snow Hill,	do	.....	5,792 62	5,792 62
St. Mary's,	do	.....	1,349 06	1,349 06
Annapolis,	do	.....	3,884 91	3,884 91
Georgetown,	District of Columbia	1,568 58	4,390 39	5,959 02
Alexandria,	do	6,864 70	3,525 28	10,390 03
Norfolk,	Virginia	6,558 51	11,571 69	18,130 25
Petersburg,	do	2,674 51	1,592 80	4,267 42
Richmond,	do	3,922 64	3,098 16	7,020 80
Yorktown,	do	.....	2,426 18	2,426 18
East River,	do	.....	1,907 15	1,907 15
Rappahannock,	do	.....	2,108 55	2,108 55
Folly Landing,	do	.....	3,771 61	3,771 61
Yeocomico,	do	.....	2,835 65	2,835 65
Cherry Stone,	do	.....	1,473 32	1,473 32
Wheeling,	do	.....	1,417 81	1,417 81
Wilmington,	North Carolina	6,610 93	2,404 92	9,015 90
Newbern,	do	1,823 86	1,869 19	3,693 10
Washington,	do	1,083 80	1,988 59	3,072 44
Edenton,	do	104 13	931 93	1,036 11
Camden,	do	647 77	7,383 62	8,031 44
Beaufort,	do	.....	1,070 19	1,070 19
Plymouth,	do	653 86	1,019 55	1,673 46
Ocracoke,	do	.....	954 11	954 11
Charleston,	South Carolina	12,953 74	8,407 44	21,361 23
Georgetown,	do	.....	2,786 42	2,786 42
Beaufort,	do	.....	246 33	246 33
Savannah,	Georgia	8,543 76	5,517 38	14,061 19
Sunbury,	do	.....	.....	.....
Brunswick,	do	1,266 05	820 17	2,086 22
Hardwick,	do	.....	.....	.....
St. Mary's,	do	.....	149 37	149 37
Cuyahoga,	Ohio	.....	8,853 88	8,853 88
Sandusky,	do	.....	3,446 75	3,446 75
Cincinnati,	do	.....	10,188 76	10,188 76
Miami,	do	.....	2,472 55	2,472 55
Nashville,	Tennessee	.....	3,521 65	3,521 65
Louisville,	Kentucky	.....	8,359 73	8,359 73
St. Louis,	Missouri	.....	11,370 00	11,370 00
Michilimackinac,	Michigan	.....	.....	.....
Detroit,	do	.....	11,520 16	11,520 16
Mobile,	Alabama	5,589 67	10,124 86	15,714 58
Pearl River,	do	.....	901 16	901 16
New Orleans,	Louisiana	54,793 05	90,321 58	145,114 63
Teche,	do	.....	684 71	684 71
Pensacola,	Florida	146 03	953 93	1,100 01
St. Augustine,	do	.....	.....	.....
Apalachicola,	do	645 66	1,821 84	2,466 55
St. Marks,	do	.....	.....	.....
Key West,	do	1,870 07	557 65	2,427 72
TOTAL,		945,803 42	1,284,940 90	2,230,744 37

Statement of the Navigation of each State and Territory of the United States, commencing on the 1st day of October, 1840, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1841.

I.—TONNAGE ENTERED THE UNITED STATES.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	AMERICAN.				FOREIGN.				TOTAL, AMERICAN AND FOREIGN.			
	Vessels.	*Tons.*	*Crews.*		*Vessels.*	*Tons.*	*Crews.*		*Vessels.*	*Tons.*	*Crews.*	
			Men.	*Boys.*			*Men.*	*Boys.*			*Men.*	*Boys*
Maine,	292	54,296	2,125	162	815	56,164	3,169	36	1,107	110,460	5,285	198
New Hampshire,	27	8,800	293	17	35	2,329	138	.....	62	11,129	431	17
Vermont,	43	13,560	332	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	43	13,560	332	.....
Massachusetts,	1,334	283,187	12,447	505	785	71,215	4,344	133	2,119	354,402	16,791	638
Rhode Island,	134	24,564	1,272	6	6	631	37	1	140	25,195	1,309	7
Connecticut,	103	21,422	1,356	31	28	3,114	145	.....	131	24,536	1,501	31
New York,	3,371	733,552	35,787	1,746	2,012	378,128	25,334	78	5,383	1,111,680	61,121	1,824
New Jersey,	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	132	6	.....	1	132	6	.....
Pennsylvania,	434	89,287	3,763	312	70	10,098	495	70	504	99,385	4,258	382
Delaware,	5	1,689	92	1	3	2,202	77	.....	8	3,891	169	1
Maryland,	353	69,275	3,107	.....	91	20,473	1,031	.....	444	89,748	4,138	.....
District of Columbia,	32	6,969	298	2	23	3,177	176	5	55	10,146	474	7
Virginia,	125	26,638	1,176	4	39	7,637	408	3	164	34,275	1,584	7
North Carolina,	186	23,803	1,209	7	29	2,794	209	.....	215	26,597	1,418	7
South Carolina,	163	29,757	1,396	37	88	25,863	1,088	126	251	55,620	2,484	163
Georgia,	51	10,612	435	.....	74	36,552	1,313	1	125	47,164	1,748	1
Alabama,	107	23,965	1,031	.....	69	36,583	1,487	.....	176	60,548	2,518	.....
Mississippi,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana,	683	193,003	8,042	.....	259	71,634	3,543	.....	942	264,637	11,585	.....
Ohio,	115	8,114	401	.....	36	2,974	147	.....	151	11,088	548	.....
Kentucky,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,	8	875	43	.....	39	3,285	183	.....	47	4,160	226	.....
Missouri,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida,	169	8,541	840	.....	36	1,459	354	.....	205	10,000	1,194	.....
TOTAL,	7,735	1,631,909	75,445	2,830	4,538	736,444	43,675	453	12,273	2,368,353	119,120	3,283

Statement of the Navigation of each State and Territory of the United States, commencing on the 1st day of October, 1840, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1841.—Continued.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	II.—TONNAGE CLEARED FROM THE UNITED STATES.											
	AMERICAN.				FOREIGN.				TOTAL, AMERICAN AND FOREIGN.			
	Vessels.	*Tons.*	*Crews.*		*Vessels.*	*Tons.*	*Crews.*		*Vessels.*	*Tons.*	*Crews.*	
			Men.	*Boys.*			*Men.*	*Boys.*			*Men.*	*Boys.*
Maine,	546	90,764	3,603	295	821	56,679	3,196	30	1,367	147,443	6,799	325
New Hampshire,	9	1,475	61	4	35	2,330	136	.....	44	3,805	197	4
Vermont,	43	13,560	332	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	43	13,560	332	.....
Massachusetts,	1,154	236,376	12,235	390	800	73,628	4,724	1	1,954	310,004	16,959	391
Rhode Island,	115	20,911	1,225	24	7	787	41	.....	122	21,698	1,266	24
Connecticut,	133	27,886	1,784	154	27	3,027	141	.....	160	30,913	1,925	154
New York,	2,883	600,307	32,253	1,727	1,946	365,241	24,989	59	4,829	965,548	57,242	1,786
New Jersey,	11	2,739	115	9	.....	.....	.....	.....	11	2,739	115	9
Pennsylvania,	390	74,201	3,310	272	65	9,322	479	52	455	83,523	3,789	324
Delaware,	10	1,632	87	2	3	2,202	80	.....	13	3,834	167	2
Maryland,	348	63,656	3,027	.....	98	23,598	1,162	.....	446	87,254	4,189	.....
District of Columbia,	65	11,472	501	3	23	3,361	160	4	88	14,833	681	7
Virginia,	236	53,910	2,252	33	47	9,333	500	10	283	63,243	2,752	33
North Carolina,	295	39,829	1,961	2	31	3,184	225	.....	326	43,013	2,186	2
South Carolina,	262	63,469	2,649	124	105	28,716	1,154	191	367	92,185	3,803	315
Georgia,	82	20,196	831	4	75	36,980	1,345	1	157	57,176	2,176	5
Alabama,	153	47,481	1,872	.....	69	35,795	1,365	.....	222	83,276	3,237	.....
Mississippi,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana,	741	244,988	9,713	.....	259	72,577	3,541	.....	1,000	317,565	13,254	.....
Ohio,	134	9,600	479	.....	31	2,624	130	.....	165	12,224	609	.....
Kentucky,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,	8	875	43	.....	71	4,734	255	.....	79	5,609	298	.....
Missouri,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida,	172	829	883	.....	41	2,731	418	.....	213	11,560	1,301	.....
TOTAL,	7,790	1,634,156	79,216	3,043	4,554	736,849	44,061	348	12,344	2,371,005	123,277	3,391

U. S. IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF SUGAR, FROM 1821 TO 1842.

Statement exhibiting the Import, Export, and Consumption of Foreign Brown and White Sugar in the United States annually, from 1821 *to* 1841, *divided into three periods of seven years each; and also the quantity of Domestic Refined Sugar exported annually during the same time; derived from a Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, July* 9, 1842.

Years.	BROWN SUGAR.			WHITE SUGAR.			DOMESTIC REFINED SUGAR.
	Imported. Pounds.	*Exp'rted.* Pounds.	*Consumed.* Pounds.	*Imported* Pounds.	*Exp'rted.* Pounds.	*Consumed.* Pounds.	Pounds.
1821	53,145,651	15,331,935	37,843,669	6,367,181	4,427,417	1,939,764	126,527
1822	77,471,313	7,732,228	69,738,535	11,834,857	4,569,017	6,265,910	177,065
1823	53,733,721	14,833,353	38,950,371	7,000,486	5,642,916	1,357,570	55,187
1824	80,133,429	8,315,855	71,717,574	14,216,033	5,769,739	8,477,299	57,908
1825	64,430,041	15,430,234	49,053,757	7,291,433	6,400,681	890,757	50,017
1826	76,019,015	16,979,823	59,039,147	8,933,940	4,135,641	4,748,299	168,991
1827	70,108,937	12,010,592	58,038,345	6,592,692	3,318,145	3,274,547	236,744
Total, 7 yrs.	475,146,613	90,629,125	384,517,433	61,216,632	34,262,596	26,954,046	872,439
1828	51,686,955	8,997,954	42,689,001	5,249,006	1,690,090	3,568,916	269,291
1829	58,597,594	10,639,247	47,958,347	4,709,720	1,697,324	3,012,396	479,218
1830	78,576,388	6,676,265	71,900,123	7,926,653	3,049,527	4,857,131	1,634,610
1831	98,576,928	17,297,837	81,279,091	10,437,726	5,274,579	5,163,147	1,273,773
1832	60,117,717	14,230,070	45,887,647	6,334,571	3,258,875	3,075,696	856,813
1833	85,699,044	2,001,424	83,697,620	11,999,088	4,475,469	7,523,219	692,876
1834	107,483,841	11,035,926	96,447,915	7,936,014	2,928,602	4,977,412	3,241,721
Total, 7 yrs.	540,728,467	70,878,723	469,849,744	54,542,783	22,364,866	32,177,917	8,498,302
1835	111,906,930	3,786,017	108,020,963	14,929,359	3,447,772	10,781,587	856,590
1836	181,243,537	30,429,836	150,813,701	10,182,573	3,782,247	6,400,291	1,675,372
1837	121,416,971	27,875,456	92,540,615	15,723,748	13,176,577	2,547,171	2,012,854
1838	139,200,935	4,503,074	134,697,331	14,673,233	7,121,250	7,555,988	2,909,836
1839	182,540,327	6,141,958	176,398,369	12,690,946	6,825,742	5,865,204	4,732,723
1840	107,956,033	9,705,020	98,250,013	12,984,552	9,076,534	3,907,968	10,741,648
1841	165,963,093	2,055,567	163,907,516	13,233,579	9,755,666	8,477,913	13,435,084
Total, 7 yrs.	1,009,125,836	84,496,923	924,623,908	98,723,000	53,185,878	45,537,122	36,414,157

RECAPITULATION.

	Pounds.
Tot. brown and white sugar, from 1821 to 1827, on which duty was retained	411,471,534
Less 872,439 lbs. domestic refined sugar exported, equivalent to.....	1,744,878
Thus, in the 7 years, from 1821 to 1827, a nett revenue was realized on	409,726,656
Tot. brown and white sugar, from 1828 to 1834, on which duty was retained	502,027,661
Less 8,498,302 lbs. domestic refined sugar exported, equivalent to.....	16,996,604
Thus, in the 7 years, from 1828 to 1834, a nett revenue was realized on	485,031,057
Tot. brown and white sugar, from 1835 to 1841, on which duty was retained	970,166,030
Less 36,414,157 lbs. domestic refined sugar exported, equivalent to.....	72,828,314
Thus, in the 7 years, from 1835 to 1841, a nett revenue was realized on	897,337,716
Increase in 7 years, from 1828 to 1834, over preceding 7 years, of.....	75,304,401
Increase in 7 years, from 1835 to 1841, over preceding 7 years, of.....	412,306,659

A STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, ANNUALLY, FROM 1821 TO 1841, INCLUSIVE; THE RECEIPTS INTO THE TREASURY, ANNUALLY, FROM CUSTOMS, DURING THE SAME PERIOD; AND, ALSO, THE VALUE OF BULLION AND SPECIE IMPORTED AND EXPORTED.

Year.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.			VALUE OF EXPORTS.			RECEIPTS INTO THE TREASURY.	BULLION AND SPECIE.	
	Free of Duty.	*Paying Duty.*	*Total.*	*Foreign Merchandise.*	*Domestic Produce, etc.*	*Total.*		*Imported.*	*Exported.*
1821	$10,082,313	$52,503,411	$62,585,724	$21,302,488	$43,671,894	$64,974,382	$13,004,447	$8,064,890	$10,478,059
1822	7,298,708	75,942,833	83,241,541	22,286,202	49,874,079	72,160,281	17,589,762	3,369,846	10,810,180
1823	9,048,288	68,530,979	77,579,267	27,543,622	47,155,408	74,699,030	19,088,433	5,097,896	6,372,987
1824	12,563,773	67,985,234	80,549,007	25,337,157	53,649,500	75,986,657	17,878,326	8,379,835	7,014,552
1825	10,947,510	85,392,565	96,340,075	32,590,643	66,944,745	99,535,388	20,098,713	6,150,765	8,470,534
1826	12,567,769	72,406,708	84,974,477	24,539,612	53,055,710	77,595,322	23,341,332	6,880,956	4,704,236
1827	11,855,104	67,628,964	79,484,068	23,403,136	58,921,691	82,324,827	19,712,283	8,151,130	8,014,880
1828	12,379,176	76,130,648	88,509,824	21,595,017	50,669,669	72,264,686	23,205,524	7,489,741	8,243,476
1829	11,805,501	62,687,026	74,492,527	16,658,478	55,700,193	72,358,671	22,681,966	7,403 612	4,924,020
1830	12,746,245	58,130,675	70,876,920	14,387,479	59,462,029	73,849,508	21,922,391	8,155,964	2,178,773
1831	13,456,625	89,734,499	103,191,124	20,033,526	61,277,057	81,310,583	24,224,442	7,305,945	9,014,931
1832	14,247,453	86,779,813	101,029,266	24,039,473	63,137,470	87,176,943	28,465,237	5,907.504	5,656,340
1833	32,447,950	75,670,361	108,118,311	19,822,735	70,317,698	90,140,433	29,032,509	7,070,368	2,611,701
1834	68,393,180	58,128,152	126,521,332	23,312,811	81,024,162	104,336,973	16,214,957	17,911,632	2,076,758
1835	77.940,493	71,955,249	149,895,742	20,504,495	101,189,082	121,693,577	19,391,311	13,131,447	6,477,775
1836	92,056,481	97,923,554	189,980,035	21,746,360	106,916,680	128,663,040	23,409,941	13,400,881	4,324 336
1837	69,250,031	71,739,186	140,989,217	21,854,962	95,564,414	117,419,376	11,169,290	10,516 414	5,976,249
1838	60,860,005	52,857,399	113,717,404	12,452,795	96,033,821	108,486,616	16,158,800	17,747,116	3,508,046
1839	76,401,792	85,690,340	162,092,132	17,494,525	103,533,891	121,028,416	23,137,925	5,595,176	8,776,743
1840	57,196,204	49,945,315	107,141,519	18,190,312	113,895,634	131,571,950	13,499,502	8,882,813	8,417,014
1841	66,019,731	61,925,757	127,945,488	15,469,081	106,382,722	121,851,803	14,487,216	4,975,883	10,031,332

It has been estimated by some that there was of specie and bullion in the country on the 30th September, 1820, $18,000,000; but say	$20,000,000
Imported from 1821 to 1841, in 20 years,	181,569,814
	201,569,814
Deduct amount exported from 1821 to 1841,	138,085,922
Balance,	63,503,892

COTTON CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement and Total Amount of the Growth, Export, Consumption, &c., for the year ending 31st August, 1842.

NEW ORLEANS.	*Bales.*		*Total in 1842.*	*Total in 1841.*
Export—				
To foreign ports,.....	649,435			
Coastwise,.....	99,832			
Burnt and damaged,.....	950			
Stock on hand, 1st September, 1842,.....	4,428			
		754,645		
Deduct—				
Stock on hand, 1st September, 1841,.....	14,490			
Received from Mobile,.....	4,565			
Received from Florida,.....	2,831			
Received from Texas,.....	5,101			
		26,987		
			727,658	813,595
MISSISSIPPI.				
Export from NATCHEZ, &c.:—				
Included in New Orleans,.....				1,085
ALABAMA.				
Export from MOBILE—				
To foreign ports,.....	241,877			
Coastwise,.....	77,161			
Stock in Mobile, 1st September, 1842,.....	422			
		319,460		
Deduct—				
Stock in Mobile, 1st September, 1841,.....	360			
Received from Florida,.....	632			
Received from Texas,.....	153			
		1,145		
			318,315	390,701
FLORIDA.				
Export—				
To foreign ports,.....	46,518			
Coastwise,.....	68,048			
Stock on hand, 1st September, 1842,.....	250			
		114,816		
Deduct—				
Stock on hand, September 1st, 1841,.....		400		
			114,416	93,552
GEORGIA.				
Export from SAVANNAH—				
To foreign ports—Uplands,.....	135,410			
Sea Islands,.....	6,976			
Coastwise—Uplands,.....	79,194			
Sea Islands,.....	674			
	222,254			
Export from DARIEN—				
To New York,.....	8,724			
Burnt,.....	450			
Stock in Savannah, 1st September, 1842,....	2,651			
Stock in Augusta and Hambro', 1st Sept. '42,	2,459			
		236,538		
Deduct—				
Stock in Savannah and Augusta, 1st Sept. '41,		4,267		
			232,271	148,947
SOUTH CAROLINA.				
Export from CHARLESTON—				
To foreign ports—Uplands,.....	184,705			
Sea Islands,.....	14,119			

SOUTH CAROLINA. *Export from* CHARLESTON—*Continued.*	*Bales.*		*Total in* 1842.	*Total in* 1841.
Coastwise—Uplands,.....	70,442			
Sea Islands,.....	341			
	269,607			
Export from GEORGETOWN—				
To New York,.....	12,617			
Burnt and lost,.....	140			
Stock in Charleston, 1st September, 1842,...	2,747			
		285,111		
Deduct—				
Stock in Charleston, 1st September, 1841,...	4,552			
Received from Savannah,.....	16,258			
Received from Florida and Key West,.....	4,137			
		24,947		
			260,164	227,400
NORTH CAROLINA.				
Export—				
All coastwise,.....	9,787			
Stock on hand, 1st September, 1842,.....	250			
		10,037		
Deduct—				
Stock on hand, 1st September, 1841,.....		300		
			9,737	7,965
VIRGINIA.				
Export—				
To foreign ports,.....	6,341			
Coastwise,.....	4,500			
Manufactured,.....	9,000			
Stock on hand, 1st September, 1842,.....	100			
		19,941		
Deduct—				
Stock on hand, 1st September, 1841,.....		928		
			19,013	20,800
Received at Philadelphia and Baltimore, overland,.....			2,000	1,000
TOTAL CROP OF THE UNITED STATES,.....			1,683,574	1,634,945

Total crop of 1842, as above,.....bales 1,683,574
Crop of last year,..... 1,634,945

Increase,.....bales 48,629

EXPORT TO FOREIGN PORTS, FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER, 1841, TO 31ST AUGUST, 1842.

FROM	*To Great Britain.*	*To France.*	*To North of Europe.*	*Other For. Ports.*	*Total.*
New Orleans,.....bales	421,450	183,272	21,207	23,506	649,435
*Mississippi, (Natchez).....	...	...	...	...	...
Alabama,.....	185,414	49,544	1,351	5,568	241,877
Florida,.....	29,412	14,097	...	3,009	46,518
Georgia, (Savannah and Darien).....	124,296	15,590	1,192	1,308	142,386
South Carolina,.....	98,305	75,504	21,417	3,598	198,824
North Carolina,.....	...	...	...	...	...
Virginia,.....	5,031	650	183	477	6,341
Baltimore,.....	734	...	594	...	1,318
Philadelphia,.....	1,217	79	329	50	1,675
New York,.....	69,548	59,393	30,578	13,519	173,038
Boston,.....	234	...	3,105	498	3,837
Grand Total,.....	935,631	398,129	79,956	51,533	1,465,249
Total last year,.....	858,742	348,776	56,279	49,480	1,313,277
Increase,.....	76,889	49,353	23,677	2,053	151,972

* The shipments from Mississippi are included in the export from New Orleans.

GROWTH.

Total crop of 1824–5,.....bales	560,000	Total crop of 1833–4,.....bales	1,205,394
1825–6,.....	710,000	1834–5,.....	1,254,328
1826–7,.....	937,000	1835–6,.....	1,360,725
1827–8,.....	712,000	1836–7,.....	1,422,930
1828–9,.....	857,744	1837–8,.....	1,801,497
1829–30,.....	976,845	1838–9,.....	1,360,532
1830–1,.....	1,038,848	1839–40,.....	2,177,835
1831–2,.....	987,477	1840–1,.....	1,634,945
1832–3,.....	1,070,438	1841–2,.....	1,683,574

CONSUMPTION.

Total crop of the United States, as before stated,.....bales			1,683,574
Add—			
Stocks on hand at the commencement of the year, 1st Sept. 1841,			
In the southern ports,.....		27,479	
In the northern ports,.....		45,000	
			72,479
Makes a supply of.....			1,756,053
Deduct therefrom—			
The export to foreign ports,.....1,465,249			
Less Texas and other foreign,.....	10,393		
		1,454,856	
Stocks on hand at the close of the year, 1st Sept., 1842,			
In the southern ports,.....	13,307		
In the northern ports,.....	18,500		
		31,807	
Burnt and lost at New Orleans,.....	950		
Burnt and lost at Savannah,.....	450		
Burnt and lost at Charleston,.....	140		
		1,540	
			1,488,203
Leaving,.....bales			267,850

Quantity consumed by and in the hands of manufacturers:—

1841–2,.....bales	267,850	1833–4,.....bales	196,413
1840–1,.....	297,288	1832–3,.....	194,412
1839–40,.....	295,193	1831–2,.....	173,800
1838–9,.....	276,018	1830–1,.....	182,142
1827–8,.....	246,063	1829–30,.....	126,512
1836–7,.....	222,540	1828–9,.....	118,853
1835–6,.....	236,733	1827–8,.....	120,593
1834–5,.....	216,888	1826–7,.....	103,483

It will be seen that we have deducted from the New Orleans statement the quantity received at that port from Texas—Texas being a foreign country.

Our estimate of the quantity taken for consumption does not include any cotton manufactured in the states south and west of Virginia, nor any in that state, except in the vicinity of Petersburg and Richmond.

Of the *new* crop now gathering, about 3,000 bales were received previous to the 1st September; of which 1,734 were received at New Orleans.

The general tenor of the accounts from the cotton-growing states leads to the conclusion that the crop now coming in will exceed that of last year by several hundred thousand bales; but the article is subject to so many vicissitudes that no certain calculation can be made as to the quantity that may reach the market.—[Shipping List.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

PROBLEMS IN ACCOUNTANTSHIP.

The question for bookkeepers proposed by T. J. in our September number has elicited numerous answers, from which we select those of R., J. D. L., and N. D., as correct. In the answer of R. there is a slight variation from the rest in form, but the following sufficiently exemplifies the answers of all three :—

Dr. **Cash.** *Cr.*

To A.....	$286 36	By A.....	$78 56
" B.....	5 99	" B.....	120 00
" Merchandise,.....	120 00	" Merchandise,.....	159 30
		" Balance,.....	54 49
	$412 35		$412 35

Dr. **A.** *Cr.*

To Cash,.....	$78 56	By Cash,.....	$286 36
" B.....	436 00	" Balance,.....	247 85
" Loss,.....	19 65		
	$534 21		$534 21

Dr. **B.** *Cr.*

To Cash,.....	$120 00	By Cash,.....	$5 99
" Loss,.....	19 65	" A.....	436 00
" Balance,.....	302 34		
	$441 99		$441 99

Dr. **Merchandise.** *Cr.*

To Cash,.....	$159 30	By Cash,.....	$120 00
		" A.....	19 65
		" B.....	19 65
	$159 30		$159 30

Dr. **Balance.** *Cr.*

To A.....	$247 85	By B.....	$302 34
" Cash,.....	54 49		
	$302 34		$302 34

The effects of the concern are therefore $302 34, which is all due to B., and of which A. pays $247 85.

Now for a different view of the transaction. Substitute the words "paid *for*" instead of "paid *to*" the firm, and the sense is materially altered. Let it be admitted that what A. & B. paid away was not first put into a cash drawer for joint use, but absolutely paid away for the business; thus, when they made purchases, each paid what he happened to have in his pocket, and that although it was understood they were partners, there was no other bookkeeping than that each kept a memorandum of all he paid away or received for the business. Of the goods sold we will suppose part were sold by one and part by the other, but the statement furnished by each (as given in the question) of what he had received and paid is admitted to be correct. Now in this case there can be no such thing as Cash on Hand, belonging to the firm. All funds of the firm are evidently in the pockets of one or the other of the parties. What, then, must one pay the other?

Solution by N. D., New Orleans, of Proposition by C. C. C.

Six Per Cent Stock.

$16,150 in the six per cent stock produces	$19,000 00
Twenty-one years' interest on ditto at six per cent is	23,940 00
	$42,940 00

Our object being a comparison of the present value of each fund in prospective, we must now find what sum at seven per cent interest would, in twenty-one years, amount to $42,940. Without giving the work of this problem, we will state that we have ascertained it to be $17,384 62

Seven per cent interest on this sum being 25,555 38

$42,940 00

This proves that we have found the true present value of the six per cent stock, as we have shown that $17,384 62 at interest, at seven per cent, produces $42,940 00, which is the prospective value of this investment.

Seven Per Cent Stock.

$16,150 in the seven per cent stock produces	$17,000 00
Fourteen years' interest at seven per cent gives	16,660 00
Prospective value,	$33,660 00

Now, without calculation, it is obvious that the present value of $33,660 is $17,000. Hence the following result:—

Present value of six per cent investment,	$17,384 62
" " seven per cent "	17,000 00
Difference in favor of six per cent,	$384 62

We trust N. D. will not object to the manner in which we have used his solution; we have merely introduced such remarks as appeared to us necessary to render the statement intelligible to that portion of our readers who are less experienced in these matters than himself.

His question we willingly insert, viz:—

Question for Bookkeepers, by N. D.

I would propose, if approved by you, the following question:—

Three partners commence business on the 1st of January, 1843, with a capital of $15,000. Of the capital, A. puts in the concern $7,000; B., 6,000; and C., 2,000. A. draws from the concern, for his private expenses, $300 per month. B., the first two years, $300 per month; and the last year, $150 per month. C. draws $50 per month. In every case, the money is drawn on the first day of the month, commencing with the first month. C. is allowed one quarter of the profits, and the balance is divided equally between A. and B. Interest allowed at the rate of six per cent per annum on the money received and taken out of the concern by the partners. At the expiration of the partnership, the nett profits of the concern are $8,000, not including the interest account between the partners. What amount is to be paid or received by each to settle the whole at the expiration of the partnership?

—

We regret that any remarks having the appearance of partiality or unfairness should have crept into our pages. We therefore cheerfully insert the following correction:—

New York, September 15th, 1842.

Mr. Editor,—Permit me to recall your attention to the comments appearing in your September number, in reference to the several answers to "a mathematical problem."

Of the various answers it is stated that "those from R. B. S. and 'Charleston' are the

readiest and most satisfactory. T. J., C. C. C., and J. L. have each given correct answers, but the processes they have adopted are not so brief."

Surely the writer of the above could not have examined the several answers, or he must have seen, as all your readers may do, that in all these answers alluded to, the difference in quantity of figures arises from a suppression of the proof extensions on the part of the two first, and which the other three have given in full. The difference in work is this, R. B. S. and Charleston have obtained a minimum price to grade the rest from, while J. L. has obtained a maximum, but the work is precisely the same; and if either answer of the three deserves a preference it is certainly that of J. L., for giving several different cases of the kind. But T. J. and C. C. C. have deducted the gross differences from the gross sales, and divided by the yards for a minimum; while R. B. S. and Charleston have divided the gross differences by the yards, and deducted the average differences from the average price per yard for a minimum. Now the Gross Sales is always a given sum in such questions; therefore the only difference in the work of the two methods is the following:—

R. B. S. and Charleston's method,	14¼
	1½
	13¼
T. J. and C. C. C.'s method,	740 45
	75 30
	665 15

In this case it is true that the former has a *leetle* the smaller sum in substraction, but for this he is indebted to the question for an easy fraction. The latter is, however, far easier understood, as it is not readily determined that to deduct the average differences will produce the same result as to deduct the totals; consequently, T. J. and C. C. C. have at least given the most "satisfactory" answers, and if not the "readiest," at least as ready as the others.

FAIR PLAY.

—

The question proposed by R. from an eastern paper would only lead, as before, to unprofitable discussion. It contains no definite proposition. Profits can only be determined when something has been fixed upon as a first cost; and moreover, it is not stated which of the three parties to the transaction the question of profits refers to.

COMMERCIAL PROSPERITY OF JAMAICA.

The Kingston Morning Journal says:—"We have been favored with a view of the statements of exports from this island during the present year, and have been delighted at perceiving the increase which has taken place over those of 1841. The statement is incomplete, not including the exports from Port Maria, Luca, and Savanna-la-Mar. Notwithstanding these omissions, it appears that 13,321 hogsheads of sugar, 3,850 puncheons of rum, and 1,233 tierces of coffee have been shipped in 1842, over and above the shipments of the previous year. Our British as well as Jamaica readers will be gratified at the increased production of our staples which this statement shows, and will join us in the anxious hope that they will continue to increase in the like ratio every year, until our island has reached that pitch beyond which increased production becomes an evil:—

	Hds. Sugar.	*Phs. Rum.*	*Trs. Coffee.*
1841	22,691	8,298	7,570
1842	36,012	12,148	8,803
Excess	13,321	3,850	1,233

THE VAULTS OF THE BANK OF FRANCE.

The silver coin is heaped up in barrels, placed in spacious cellars, resembling the subterranean storehouses of a brewery. Each tub holding fifty thousand francs in five-franc pieces, and weighing about six hundred pounds. There were, I was told, eight hundred barrels, piled up to the very crown of the arches, and rising much higher than my head. We walked through a long alley of these barrels for some time, until we came to a large stone-roofed and iron-floored apartment, wherein are to be seen large square leaden cases, resembling those used at vitriol and sulphuric acid works. Each of these holds twenty thousand bags of one thousand francs each, and the whole are soldered up hermetically within the cases; several of which, it appears, have not been opened for nearly forty years; and, a regent told me, would probably remain untouched a hundred years longer, and would be the last of their stock dipped into. In these leaden reservoirs the treasure of the Bank of France is kept perfectly dry, and free also from any variation of temperature. The stairs leading to these regions of Plutus are narrow, and admit of only one person at a time, ascending or descending with a candle. This has been expressly contrived for protection, and defence from insurgent mobs. In one of the treasure vaults are the precious deposits of the Rothschilds, and other wealthy capitalists, left for safety with the bank. Want of confidence obliges the Bank of France to keep in its vaults a sum which might be reduced to a fourth, or even an eighth part, with safety to itself, and of incalculable advantage to the wealth and prosperity of the country.—[Letters from Paris.

"SIX HOSTILE TARIFFS."

The Leeds (England) Mercury, enumerates the "hostile tariffs" that have been passed, with their respective dates, with the briefest possible explanation of their bearing on English commerce, as follows:—

1. The Russian Tariff, issued in November, 1841; by which the duty on worsted or woollen goods, and mixed worsted and cotton, was raised from 200 to 300 per cent ad valorem; printed goods are prohibited. The King of Prussia, during his late visit to St. Petersburgh, induced the Emperor to issue a more favorable ukase for the products of Prussia.

2. The Portuguese Tariff, bearing date the 12th of December, 1841; by which the duties on English woollens were raised to an ad valorem duty of 45 per cent. A favorable tariff is now in course of negotiation.

3. The French Tariff, bearing date the 26th of June, 1842; by which the duties on English linen yarns and linens were doubled, and made almost entirely prohibitory, this being by far our largest branch of export to France.

4. The Belgian Tariff, issued in July, 1842; by which the duty on English linens and linen yarns was raised to the same prohibitory rate as the French duty, in obedience to the dictation of France, and with a view of preventing the smuggling of English linens and yarns into that country through Belgium.

5. The United States Tariff, bearing date Aug., 1842; by which the duty on woollens was raised from 20 to 40 per cent ad valorem, on worsted goods from 20 to 30 per cent, and on cotton goods the duty was made nominally 30 per cent; but on some kinds of goods it is in reality from 100 to 200 per cent ad valorem, and on many kinds of cottons, woollens, and other goods the duty will be prohibitory.

6. The German League Tariff, passed September, 1842; by which the duty on one of the largest branches of our exports, namely, worsted goods, figured or printed, is raised from twenty dollars per cwt., so as to be in many cases prohibitory; and by which the duty on quincaillerie or hardware is increased probably to fifty dollars per cwt.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Physician for Ships; exhibiting the Symptoms, Causes, and Treatment of Diseases incident to Seamen and Passengers in Merchant Vessels, with Directions for Preserving their Health in Sickly Climates.* By USHER PARSONS, M.D., formerly Surgeon in the Navy, and President of the Rhode Island Medical Society. Third edition. pp. 216. Boston: Little & Brown.

It is no small recommendation to this work, that the second edition of two thousand copies is all sold. In the present edition important improvements and additions are made in every part of the book; and the whole of it has been written with an eye to the understanding and capacities of those for whom it was intended. An extract or two, from a Review of the former edition, contained in the New England Medical Journal, will give the reader a correct idea of its merits:—

"We trust that this work will meet with an extensive circulation. We think it would be an object well worthy the attention of our principal merchants, to introduce it among the masters of vessels in their employ. They would, no doubt, find themselves amply repaid for the trifling expense to which it would subject them, in the greater safety and health of their crews, and the security of their own property. With a due observance of the precautions and preventives insisted on by Dr. Parsons, we should not so often hear of the extensive and dreadful fatality which sometimes befalls merchant vessels, and sweeps off one after another their whole crews. If the commanders of vessels make it their study, as it is their duty, to understand, so far as they are capable, its contents, there can be no doubt they might arrive at tolerably correct ideas of the nature and treatment of those diseases to which seamen are more particularly subject." "The descriptions of diseases, are brief and perspicuous; giving not a medical history of their phenomena and progress, but a view of such of their principal symptoms, as would convey a vivid impression to the mind of an unprofessional observer. The method of treatment recommended is, also, of that kind which can be best understood and practised by those for whom the work is intended as a guide."

2.—*The Phenomena and Order of the Solar System.* By J. P. NICHOL, LL. D., F. R. S., Professor of Practical Astronomy in the University of Glasgow; author of "Views of the Architecture of the Heavens," etc. 12mo. pp. 166. Dayton & Newman.

This work was first published in Glasgow, in 1838, and the present is the first American reprint of the last Edinburgh edition. It is divided into three parts. The first part, in treating of the motions of the planetary orbs, gives an account of astronomy in early times, its reform, the advance of observation, and the perfection of the theory. The second part is devoted to the physical constitution of the solar system, and of the bodies that compose it, embracing the leading and general characteristics of the bodies of our system; character and constitution of the individual planetary bodies, and the constitution of the sun. The third part treats of gravitation, and remoter consequences of gravity. In marking the rise of astronomy, and while unfolding its truths, the author very naturally dwells with fondness on the actions, characters, and fates of the heroes of its history,—those men who created it by successive conquests over the unknown—those STARS, by the memory of whose greatness we are drawn nearer the ETERNAL. The work is illustrated with numerous appropriate drawings.

3.—*The Claims of the Episcopal Bishops, Examined in a Series of Letters, addressed to the Rev. S. A. McCroskey, D.D., Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church of Michigan.* By GEORGE DUFFIELD, of the Presbyterian Church of Detroit. 12mo. pp. 316. New York: Dayton & Newman.

These letters were called forth by the publication of a sermon of Bishop McCroskey, supporting the doctrine, "that it is only through the episcopal ministry that pardon and acceptance with God can be made known." Mr. Duffield reviews the arguments in particular and general of the claims of episcopacy, and defends the common ground occupied by the non-episcopal portions of the Christian church.

4.—*First Principles of Natural Philosophy*; being a Familiar Introduction to the Study of that Science, for the Use of Schools and Academies. By JAMES RENWICK, LL. D., Professor of Natural and Experimental Philosophy, and Chemistry, in Columbia College. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The many years' experience which the learned author of this treatise has had in the business of teaching, in addition to his profound scientific attainments, would lead us to expect from him a first-rate elementary work on this subject; and such he has given us. It may be considered, we presume, as embodying the course of instruction he has pursued in this department, with such illustrations, and modes of demonstration, as were found best adapted to render the study pleasing and profitable to his pupils. It is, therefore, what all elementary books for schools should be, the result of tried and well-considered methods; whereas, many of our school books are mere compilations, made by inexperienced hands. The manner of teaching is all-important; and we have never seen a scientific work more clear and intelligible. By the aid of the diagrams and drawings, of which there are an unusual number, the young student is enabled to comprehend, with great facility, the most abstruse parts.

5.—*Self-Devotion; or the History of Katharine Randolph.* By the author of "The Only Daughter," etc., edited by the author of "The Subaltern," "The Hussar," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We know not what changes the publishing business is destined to experience, but it is certainly assuming a new phasis, and cheap editions, in a condensed form, are, as the saying is, "all the go." Here is another two-volume book, price nine shillings, under the old *regime*, got up in the *latest style*, and sold for *twenty-five cents*. The previous works of this amiable and gifted author have been deservedly commended for their purity, truthfulness, and elegant simplicity of style, nor is the present work inferior to them in these respects. There are passages of great power, evincing uncommon depth of thought in one so young, and it is painful to be informed, as we are by the editor in his preface, that all this early promise of matured excellence has been blasted in death. The work is posthumous.

6.—*The Nabob at Home; or the Return to England.* By the author of "Life in India." New York: Harper & Brothers.

A very clever fiction, intended to depict life in India, and the character acquired by Europeans from a long residence in that country. The hero of the story is probably a pretty fair representative of the numerous adventurers after wealth in that distant region, who usually come back with broken constitutions, and habits and modes of thinking so at variance with those they find prevailing around them, as to have but little real enjoyment of their money. This is also in the publishers' series of cheap "select novels."

7.—*Miscellanies.* By STEPHEN COLLINS, M.D. 12mo. pp. 308. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1842.

We thank the publishers for introducing us to a new author, and although one we never heard of before, we give him our hearty welcome, for his "Miscellanies" afford no mean evidence of his claims to a prominent niche in the temple of the Nine. The volume consists of essays, criticisms and speeches, generally sensible and well-written; every page evincive of a desire to "advance the cause of virtue, literature, or humanity."

8.—*Discourses on Various Subjects.* By E. H. CHAPIN. Boston: Abel Tompkins.

Mr. Chapin sets out with a proposition that none will perhaps deny, that the great end of preaching is to reform the life, and reconcile men to duty and to God. To accomplish this the most effectually, he maintains that we should have correct views of the doctrines of Christianity, and that we should understand the true motives and objects of religion. He is a Universalist, and makes no effort to conceal his opinions, or to go between the discordant tenets of the sects. Neither does he travel out of his course in order to thrust prominently forward his peculiar views; but these discourses are chiefly practical, inculcating Christian dispositions, the government of the tongue, self-denial, and the various graces and virtues portrayed in the life, and taught from the fervent lips of Jesus, the divine ideal of Christianity.

9.—*The Complete Poetical Works of William Cowper, Esq., etc.; with a Memoir of the Author.* By the Rev. H. Stebbing, A.M. 18mo. pp. 823. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

The poetical works of Cowper are too well known and appreciated to require literary criticism at our hands. Our only object in the present notice, is to call the attention of the admirers of this delightful bard, to the beautiful edition before us, which is undoubtedly the most perfect and complete that has ever been reprinted in this country. It includes, in addition to the poems embraced in the ordinary editions of Cowper, the hymns and translations from Madame Guion, Milton, etc.,—and Adam, a sacred drama, from the Italian of Andreini. The printing and paper are superb, and in perfect keeping with the uniformly correct and elegant style adopted by the liberal and enterprising publishers.

10.—*Library for My Young Countrymen. Vol. 8.—Dawnings of Genius; or, the Early Lives of Some Eminent Persons of the Last Century.* By Anne Pratt, author of "Flowers and their Associations," etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton. 1842.

The narratives of Sir Humphrey Davy, Rev. George Crabbe, Baron Cuvier, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Lindley Murray, Sir James Mackintosh, and Adam Clarke, contained in this volume, are not abridgments of the lives of the eminent persons named—they present chiefly some account of their childhood and early youth. The author, however, aims to give her young readers a correct impression of the character which the individuals bore in later years, and of the degree in which the memoirs are entitled to our respect and admiration. The author's design, is to show that moral excellence is, in many instances, combined with mental greatness, giving to it its peculiar beauty and highest value. "She has wished," to quote from the preface, "to convince the young of the importance of cultivating both the mind and the heart,—of taking for their example a high standard of mental and moral worth; and in all things excellent she would recommend them to adopt the motto of Dr. Johnson, and "aim at the eagle, if they only hit the sparrow."

11.—*The Little Boys' and Girls' Library of Amusement and Instruction.* Edited by Mrs. Sarah J. Hale. New York: Edward Dunigan. 1842.

Here are eight little volumes, containing sixteen stories in prose and verse, illustrated with a great many highly-colored engravings, admirably adapted for the amusement and instruction of "little folks." We have long known the editor, she is the mother of a large family of children, and aside from her well-earned fame, in the higher walks of polite literature, the happy results that have followed her maternal teachings and influence, afford abundant evidence of her ability to impart to the young mind profitable moral and mental culture.

12.—*Little Coin, Much Care; or, How Poor Men Live. A Tale for Young Persons.* By Mary Howitt.—*Work and Wages; or, Life in Service. A continuation of "Little Coin, Much Care."* By Mary Howitt. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton. 1842.

These little volumes are designed to inculcate lessons of prudence and economy in humble life, as may be inferred from the expressive titles; and although referring to the condition of the factory operatives of England, they contain many important hints, that would be useful to a large class of people in a corresponding condition in the United States. "Work and Wages," embraces an interesting narrative of a girl at service, and may be read with profit by mistress and servant.

13.—*Tired of Housekeeping.* By T. S. Arthur, author of "Insubordination," "Six Nights with the Washingtonians," etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton. 1842.

This is an American tale, and admirably adapted to the social condition of our people, and in our judgment one of the best of the series of "Tales for the People and their Children," in course of publication by the Appletons. The machinery of the narrative is well managed, and is withal agreeable and attractive; the tendency of works like the present, in a moral and social view, cannot for a moment be doubted. We hope to see more, in the series, from the same gifted pen.

14.—*The Young Naturalist's Rambles through Many Lands;* containing an Account of the Principal Animals and Birds of both the Old and New Countries; with Anecdotes. Illustrated with upwards of fifty engravings. 16mo. pp. 205.

15.—*Stories Illustrative of the Instinct of Animals, their Characters, and Habits.* By THOMAS BINGLEY. Embellished with engravings from drawings by T. Landseer. 16mo. pp. 201.

16.—*Tales about Travellers, their Perils, Adventures, and Discoveries.* By THOMAS BINGLEY. Embellished with engravings. 16mo. pp. 190.

17.—*William Tell, the Patriot of Switzerland.* Translated from the French of M. De Florian. Together with the Life of the author. To which is added Andreas Hofer, the "Tell" of Tyrol. Illustrated with engravings on wood, by Butler. 16mo. pp. 240.

18.—*Tales of the Kings of England;* 1st and 2d Series. 2 vols. 16mo. pp. 224 and 239. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1842.

We cannot thus record in our pages the titles of these works, forming a sort of "Library for the Young," and exclusively devoted to the instruction and amusement of youth, without noticing the changes which a few years have made in this department of literature. If it be an undoubted truth, that a slight impression on the infant mind will affect its form and strength through life, a generation nurtured among the valuable and pleasing volumes which now form our "Libraries for the People and their Children," or "My Young Countrymen," etc., must far surpass, in every intellectual and moral trait, a race taught only the absurd tales of fairy enchantment, and the foolish chimes of "Rhymes for the Nursery." The worthless volumes, in the perusal of which our childhood was wasted, have now given place to a class, which, though happily adapted to the comprehension of the youngest, may both amuse and instruct the oldest. Such is the character of the volumes of the series before us, which, although reprints from the English, we have read not without pleasure or advantage. The compiler of the "Tales of the Kings of England," instead of resorting to the very general practice of giving abridgments—mere outlines of history, in which there is nothing to arrest the attention of the child, has selected such incidents from the history of England, as shall not only convey instruction to his young readers, but afford them as much interest and delight as the fairy stories of their infancy. In the "Naturalist's Rambles" the plan of grouping the animals and birds in their several quarters of the world, is adopted, so that the youthful reader will be able to recollect with ease from which places any of them are brought.

19.—*The Siege of Derry; or, Sufferings of the Protestants.* A Tale of the Revolution. 12mo. pp. 292.

20.—*Helen Fleetwood.* 12mo. pp. 390.

21.—*Personal Recollections.* pp. 303.

22.—*Principalities and Powers in Heavenly Places.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. With an Introduction, by the Rev. EDW. BICKERSTETH. pp. 298. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

Mr. Taylor, we believe, three or four years ago, first introduced this popular writer to the American reader, by the republication of several of the earliest productions of her prolific pen. Her popularity is chiefly confined to the more religious portion of the reading community; a class neither few in number, or wanting in the disposition to partake of the intellectual nutriment which the press of the present day so amply supplies. Her writings are strictly religious in their tone and tendency, as much so as the works of Mrs. Sherwood. She, however, excels that lady in a more spirited and flowing style; and is destined to acquire a greater degree of popularity, and a more numerous circle of readers among those who hold the popular "evangelical" or "orthodox" faith.

The volumes of the uniform edition before us, we have noticed separately as they were published during the last year. We therefore merely wish to express, at this time, our admiration of the taste displayed by Mr. Taylor in the "getting up" of the present beautiful edition, and recommend it to the admirers of the gifted author. Additions to this series are to be made, simultaneously with their appearance in England, Mr. Taylor having, as we understand, made a liberal arrangement with the author for early copies of every work she may hereafter publish.

23.—*A Discourse occasioned by the Death of William Ellery Channing, D.D.,* pronounced before the Unitarian Societies of New York and Brooklyn, in the Church of the Messiah, October 13th, 1842. By HENRY W. BELLOWS. 8vo. pp. 28.

We listened with deep interest to the delivery of this discourse, and its subsequent perusal has only served to strengthen and confirm our conviction of its character, as an able, eloquent, and truthful portraiture of one of the greatest and purest men of the age.

24.—*The Ursuline Manual; or a Collection of Prayers, Spiritual Exercises, etc.*, interspersed with Various Instructions necessary for forming Youth to the Practice of Solid Piety; originally arranged for the Young Ladies educated at the Ursuline Convent, Cork. Revised by the Very Reverend JOHN POWER, and approved by Bishop Hughes. New York: Edward Dunigan.

The Catholic public are indebted to Mr. Dunigan for the most elegantly-bound and handsomely printed edition of this manual of devotion that, to our knowledge, has ever before been published. The "Ursuline Manual," is, we are informed, more used, by the members of the Catholic church, than any other extant. *Heretics*, as we should be considered by our Catholic brethren, we do not anticipate ourselves to be greatly edified by its perusal or use; and we have therefore concluded, in the true catholic spirit, respecting the sincerity of all, to present it to a very faithful daughter of the church and of Erin, in our family, whom we know will fully appreciate its value.

25.—*The London Christian Observer.*

This popular monthly religious miscellany is again to be republished in this country. Mr. Mason, the proprietor of the American edition of the English reviews and magazines, has issued a prospectus, which will be found appended to this magazine, announcing the reprint of that work, which it is promised shall be a fac-simile of the British edition, at very little more than a fourth part of the price of the imported copy. It advocates, what are considered by a large portion of the Protestant Christian community, the distinctive doctrines of the sacred Scripture. It has ever been conducted with marked ability; and will doubtless meet with encouragement from different denominations of American theologians.

26.—*The Young American; or Book of Government and Law:* Showing their History, Nature, and Necessity. By S. G. GOODRICH, author of "Peter Parley's Tales. 18mo. pp. 282. New York: Wilham Robinson. 1842.

The design of this little treatise is excellent; and like every thing from Peter Parley, admirably well calculated to secure the attention of children. It begins with the first ideas of government and law, and successively treats of governments and legislation in all their successive stages, and diversified forms. The nature, origin, and principles of government, and especially our own, are here made accessible to all, and at the same time familiar to the youthful student.

27.—*The Young Islanders.* A Tale of the Last Century. By Jefferys Taylor. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

A tale of deep and thrilling effect, and calculated to awaken the most intense interest in both young and old. It is besides full of earnest instruction. The engraved illustrations are superb; and altogether it is one of the best juvenile gift books of the season.

28.—*Backbiting.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

It will not, we trust, be deemed uncharitable in us to say, that if all who might receive benefit from this happy illustration of the evil indicated by the title, should read the book, the publishers' enterprise would be amply rewarded.

29.—*Line Upon Line; or a Second Series of the Earliest Religious Instruction the Infant Mind is capable of receiving, etc.* By the author of the "Peep of Day." 18mo. pp. 272. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

The design of this little work is to lead children to understand, and to delight in the Scriptures. The most interesting narratives of the Old Testament are selected, and rendered attractive to the young, by the easy and familiar style in which they are related. It is the fifth American from the fourth London edition of the work

30.—*Tales and Illustrations, chiefly intended for Young Persons.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. 18mo. pp. 228. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

This little volume contains fifteen tales and sketches, designed to inculcate in an attractive form the same moral and religious sentiments and feelings that characterize all the writings of the popular author.

31.—*The Juvenile Pianist; or a Mirror of Music for Infant Minds.* By ANNE RODWELL. Illustrated with numerous diagrams and engravings. New York: James D. Lockwood.

The style of this little treatise is adapted to the most infantile capacity, and is designed to render the early practice of the piano both easy and attractive.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

The twenty-second anniversary of this highly useful institution was celebrated on Wednesday, the 9th of November. A large audience was assembled at the Tabernacle, notwithstanding the very stormy state of the weather.

Philip Hone, Esq., presided, and addressed the meeting, giving an account of the origin of the society. He was succeeded by J. T. Rollins, Esq., who described its progress, and present favorable position.

Charles Eames, Esq., then rose and delivered a most eloquent and powerful oration, illustrating the benefits which navigation and commerce had conferred upon mankind. His address was much applauded.

After the oration, Park Benjamin, Esq., pronounced a poem which he had been requested to prepare for the occasion. We had expected to hear a serious and learned effusion on the advantages derived by the rising generation from the establishment of the Mercantile Library, but we were most agreeably surprised to find that Mr. Benjamin's poem was a satire on the present rage for verse making. It is replete with elegant fancies, biting sarcasm, and happy allusions, which were eagerly seized by the audience, and highly applauded. His lines upon the present state of the drama were beautiful, and produced a most thrilling effect.

The company adjourned to Niblo's, where a dinner had been prepared. A number of toasts were given from the chair, which was very ably filled by Philip Hone, Esq. Several excellent speeches were made; those by Mr. Mayor Morris, Mr. Evarts, Mr. J. O. Sargent, and Mr. Keese, were the best of the evening.

The general hilarity of the evening was very much increased by some excellent music which had been prepared by Mr. H. C. Watson. Several beautiful songs, duets, and glees were sung by Mrs. Loder, her sister Miss Watson, Mr. Horn, the Messrs. Massett; and Mr. Timm and Mr. W. A. King delighted the company by playing a magnificent duet.

We lay before our readers a programme of the course of lectures to be delivered during the months of December, January, February, and March.

1842, Dec. 6th—One Lecture—O. A. Brownson, Esq.—"Government, its Origin, Organization, and End."

Dec. 13th—One Lecture—Elihu Burritt, Esq.—"The Indispensable Character and Necessity of Popular Lectures, in View of the Present and Prospective Wants of the Community."

Dec. 20th—One Lecture—George Bancroft, Esq.—"Genius is the Expression of the Spirit of the Age."

Dec. 27th—One Lecture—Charles O'Connor, Esq.—"The Advantages Resulting to Society from the Study and Practice of the Art of Public Speaking."

1843, Jan. 3d—One Lecture—Richard H. Dana, Jr., Esq.—"The Foundation of Influence."

Jan. 17th—One Lecture—Rev. William H. Furness—"The Characteristics of Genius."

Jan. 24th—One Lecture—John Neal, Esq.—"The Rights of Woman."

Jan. 31st—One Lecture—John Neal, Esq.—"General Reading."

Feb. 7th—One Lecture—William M. Evarts, Esq.—"The Service of Political Economy in the Advancement of Society."

Feb. 14th—One Lecture—Rev. Henry Giles—"The Spirit of Irish History."

Feb. 21st—One Lecture—Rev. Henry Giles—"The Genius of Byron."

Feb. 28th—One Lecture—Ralph Waldo Emerson, Esq.

March 7th—One Lecture—Ralph Waldo Emerson, Esq.

The lectures are delivered on Tuesday evening of each week.

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